

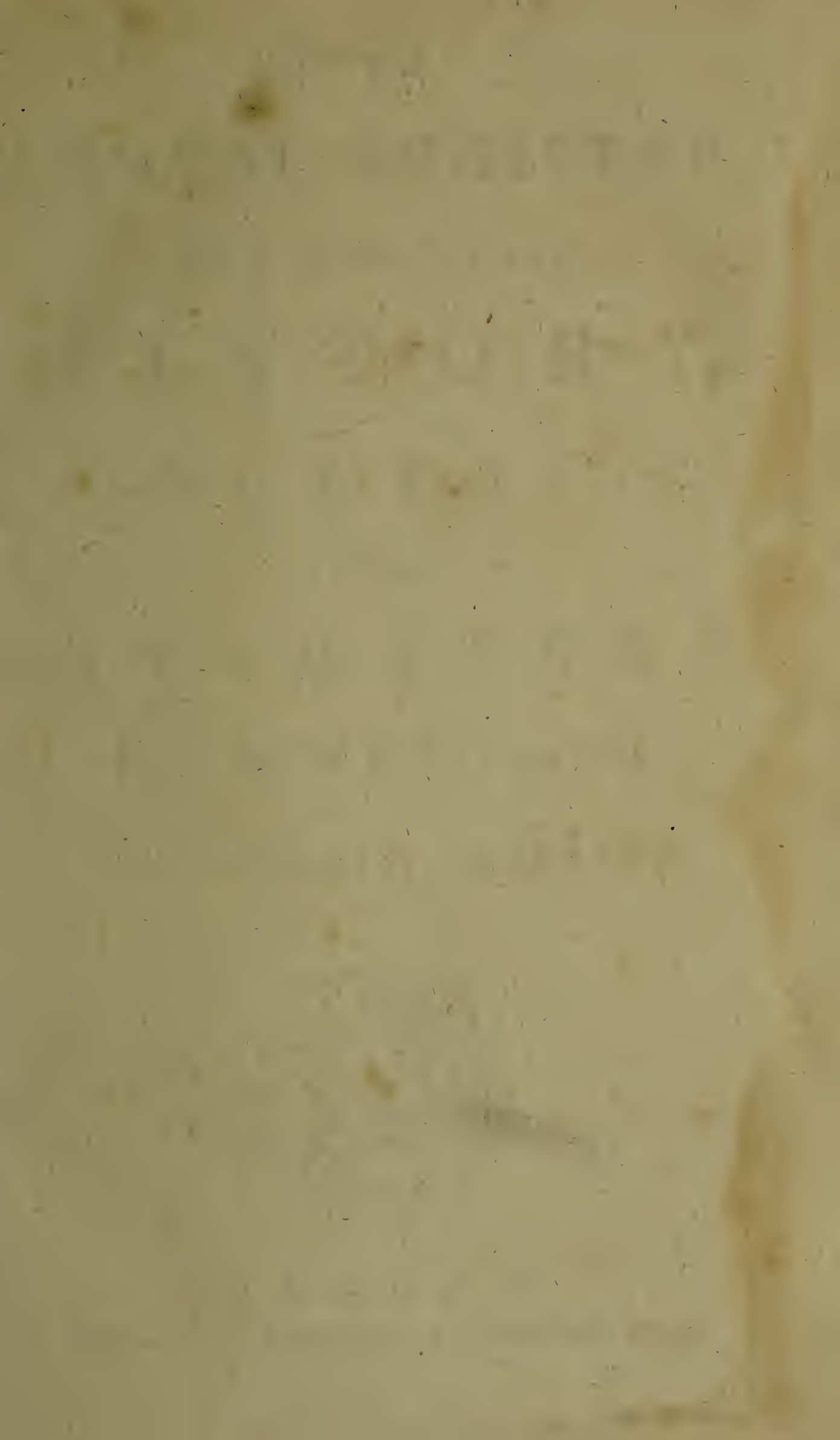
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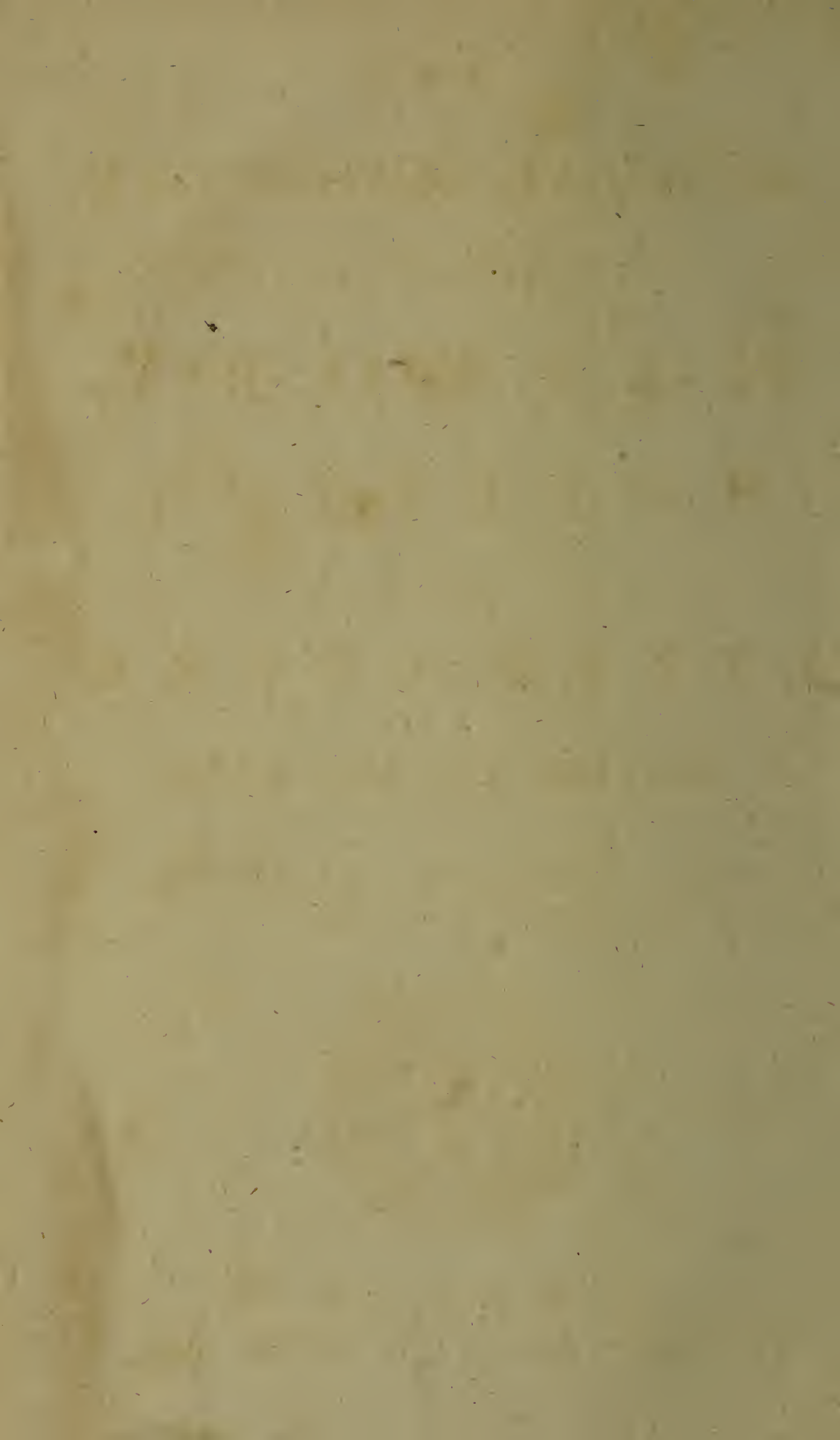
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THE
ANNUAL REGISTER,
OR A VIEW OF THE
HISTORY,
POLITICS,
AND
LITERATURE
For the YEAR 1764.

THE FOURTH EDITION.



L O N D O N:
Printed for J. DODSLEY, in Pall-Mall, 1792.

ANNUAL REGISTER

1877

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P R E F A C E.

IT may be proper to acquaint the reader, that the present situation of affairs has not hitherto obliged us to make any change in the plan of our work. We have endeavoured to procure as many and as various materials as was consistent with our desire of keeping our collection chaste, and of preserving the order and method which the public indulgence had formerly approved.

If the materials for the foreign history have, through the felicity of the times, been less abundant than in former years, our domestic dissensions have supplied the place of those foreign events, and displayed a scene almost as animated, but much less hurtful
to

P R E F A C E.

to humanity. These jars, such is the excellent temperament of our constitution, have done, and will, probably, do very little mischief. Without materially checking the necessary operations of government, they prevent the minds of men from stagnating in a state so full of prosperity, as our present; and keep alive the spirit of liberty, at a time when the real and undisturbed enjoyment of that invaluable blessing might, perhaps, without this spur, abate something of that jealous and anxious zeal for its preservation, which, when once extinguished, is not so easily kindled. There are times, when the spirit of liberty must owe something to the spirit of faction.

T H E

THE
ANNUAL REGISTER,
For the YEAR 1764.

THE
HISTORY
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

State of Europe. Disposition of Russia. State of the other northern powers. King of Prussia, his alliances. Revolution in political system. Distraction of France. Character of the parliaments of that kingdom. Growth of their power.

AFTER so extensive and so sanguinary a war as the last, it is necessary that Europe should enjoy a long repose, to enable her to recover, in any degree, her former strength and prosperity. Happily, indeed, every appearance concurs to assure the stability of a peace which is so much wanted. It is not the worst security for the continuance of this peace, that some of the

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most active and the most considerable of the christian powers, in the midst of this exterior tranquillity, are by no means in an assured state of domestic quiet. Strong internal movements subsist, which draw, for a time at least, their attention from any schemes of enterprise, and any plans of foreign aggrandisement.

If we examine into the state of the north, and consider Russia, the

[B] greatest

greatest nation in that quarter, we shall see very little reason to apprehend from her a design upon her neighbours. And, with regard to any offensive intentions against Russia, they have long since ceased to compose a part in the politics of any power whatever. Notwithstanding her permanent strength, and an occasional exertion of it, that are very menacing, I do not find that there has, even once, been a plan seriously thought on for the reduction of the greatness of Russia, ever since the time of Charles XII. which was the period of her entering into the circle of our political system. And this was rather an attempt to crush her in her infancy, than a plan to obstruct her further growth, when once become formidable.

From that time she has been growing (not so much, perhaps, as might be expected in learning and the arts, but, certainly) to a very high degree in substantial power, and in all the resources that support it; a strong military force, an increasing commerce, prudent, because, for the most part, a lucrative system of negotiation; and an unbounded influence over those nations with whom she has the nearest connection.

Her friendship has been much sought, and generally paid for. Her armies have been kept up at very considerable numbers; and if her troops have not improved, the last war evidently demonstrates that they have not at all declined from that discipline to which they were formed by Peter the Great. That commerce, too, of which he was the founder, has been far from languishing since his death; and the balance of trade is in her

favour with, I believe, all the nations with whom she has any intercourse. The emulation which, for this century past, has subsisted amongst all the maritime countries in augmenting their marine, has, without the exertion of any deep policy on her side, operated powerfully in her favour; as nature has made her the great magazine of naval stores to Europe.

Nothing shews more clearly, that Russia has the strongest political stamina, than that her condition is such as we have described it, whilst her government has undergone very frequent shocks and sudden revolutions, whilst the throne was seldom established with great security to the possessor, and never provided with any sound and invariable principle of succession.

At present we cannot say that Russia is much improved in these particulars. On the contrary, nothing can be more critical than the situation of that government.

From hence the north may, in a great measure, depend on the continuance of its tranquillity. Sweden and Denmark have, to all appearance, very wisely abandoned, for a time at least, the character of a military people; and turned their whole attention to their domestic improvement. This wise plan of conduct will one day prove the most solid basis of their power. They will derive from thence a real strength, superior to what they at any time proposed; superior to what even Sweden, the most considerable of these two nations, obtained by her famous military exploits in the last century, and in the beginning of the present. This, however, was soon lost, and their short and unnatural strength was followed

followed by a long and lasting weakness. Their present politics will certainly produce a power, less striking perhaps, but far less invidious, and far more durable.

The king of Prussia, who did not contract a shilling of debt, or lose a foot of territory in the last war, who is indeed weakened himself, but has at the same time destroyed his neighbours, defended by his great personal qualities and by the vastness of his reputation, terrible even in his repose, he sees no object which can alarm or dares to provoke him. He is secured by the circumstances above-mentioned from Russia. Sweden has much more to dread from him than he has to fear from her, on account of their vicinity in Pomerania. On the side of Poland, he must be perfectly secure; not only by the general inefficiency of that anarchical constitution, but by its having a king who has been supported by him in his election, and who will, in all likelihood, continue invariable in his interest; at least until he comes to a rupture with Russia: an event by no means to be expected in the present situation of affairs.

By having set the crown on the head of a native Pole, he has prevented the weight of that country from being thrown into the scale of any German potentate; a weight, which, however inconsiderable in itself, yet, added to a government of more firmness and activity, could not fail to raise some of his neighbouring princes to a degree of importance, which it is not his interest that any of them should ever arrive at.

If Russia is not so sanguinely disposed to favour him, as she was

for a moment, when directed by Peter III. she has neither the same animosity against him, nor the same capacity to hurt, which she had under the empress Elizabeth. Towards the close of last summer he concluded a defensive alliance with that court.

He has likewise taken such measures with the Turk, as must render him formidable to the only court, from which, by its power or dispositions, he could have any thing to dread. The Turk is better situated than Russia to pin down Austria, and more to be depended upon for a steady conduct in every circumstance of friendship or of enmity. He is not worse situated in any affairs which he may possibly have with Great Britain.

In explaining his situation, we explain that of the Empress Queen of Hungary. It is now no longer the contention between the rival houses of Austria and Bourbon, whose aggrandisement or diminution have so long engaged, divided, and agitated Europe, which forms the great centre of our political system, and occupies the hopes and fears of mankind. That quarrel seems to be entirely composed. That hereditary enmity has expired, and, as it were, suddenly. But the causes had been long efficaciously, though perhaps sometimes silently and obscurely, at work.

France and Austria found that they had rivals to dread more formidable to each of them, than they were to one another. The king of Prussia, with a force considered relatively to this object, not a great deal inferior to that of France, and certainly better directed,

directed, presses more closely upon Austria. And France, having for some time aimed at greatness by new methods, and cultivated commerce and naval force, has met Great Britain in her way; with what an event the world has been a witness. In consequence of this change, the political world has lost something of its simplicity. It has divided into two systems, which have, in reality, but little necessary connection with one another; though, whenever troubles shall break out, there is no doubt but the Powers which compose both will be as effectually engaged, as if they had a cause in common.

As to France, who, next to Prussia, is the power whose activity may be supposed most likely to affect the peace, there is great reason to imagine that she will continue for a long time a quiet neighbour. Her internal movements seem to be the best pledges of her external inoffensiveness. The parliaments of France, which are the supreme courts of justice, and not the proper legislative authority, are, since the states have been laid aside, become the depositaries of the precious remains of liberty in that country. They have kept them concealed in their tribunals (as Jehoiada did the heir of the Jewish kings in the temple, whilst the principles of absolute power were in their vigour, and too strong to be resisted. But when the principles of monarchy first had declined a little from its strength, they began gradually to discover their rights to the public, and to assert them with a vigour that merits every praise, and is, indeed, beyond all example.

That officers of justice, actually appointed by the crown, should be the faithful guardians of liberty, is something singular. Such, however, they have undoubtedly been; nor have they been altogether destitute of proper powers for the discharge of this great trust. Although the whole legislative as well as executive power is admitted by those parliaments to reside in the king, yet have they contrived a method of controlling the crown in the exercise of both these powers, and of interposing their authority in every matter of religion, of civil police, of revenue, and even, in some instances in matters of state. They do not claim to be advised with in the first digestion of any councils: but, as no royal edict or arrêt can have the force of a law, until it is registered in parliament; when it comes to them for this purpose, though they cannot actually refuse the registry, if the royal authority be exerted in all its fullness, which is, when the king personally present in parliament holds what is called a *lit de justice*, yet they may suspend it for some time, and in all cases remonstrate against the edict.

In some instances, perhaps, they have exceeded even these bounds; but, on considering the practice for many years past, this seems to be the ordinary extent of their authority. We must, however, confess, that it is not very easy to ascertain the exact limits of a power, which appears to have been contracted or extended in the exercise, rather as circumstances were favourable or adverse to its exertion, than upon principles that

that were fixed, or rights that were ascertained. The great wars, in which France has been engaged, have obliged the administration frequently to levy great taxes on the subject. This brought on the necessity of frequent registers, and, of course, multiplied remonstrances on so popular a topic, where the parliaments seemed to oppose themselves to all the rage of power, and to stand as the only bulwark between the people and oppression.

The court, in order to induce them to a more easy register of its money edicts, and to silence their loud and sometimes harsh remonstrances, has condescended to many compliances; by which the parliament has gained no little ground on that side. On the other hand, those remonstrances, and the effect of them, have acquired to the parliaments the deepest reverence amongst the people, and have secured to them all the weight which popularity is capable of conferring in a government like that of France.

The court, finding that it gained more by the authority and the respect which attended its acts when sanctioned by the parliament, than it lost by the occasional oppo-

sition of that body, never took any effectual steps to prevent the growth of their authority. It appeared for a long time as no other than a political contrivance, by which a shadow of law or liberty was presented to the people, and they thought that as they had set it up, they might take it down at their pleasure. But it is not easy to remove, upon a pretence of ancient right, a power which has gathered strength, without contracting any odium, by a long exercise of uncontrolled jurisdiction. This was visible enough in the affair of the archbishop of Paris, when he attempted the enforcement of the Bull *Unigenitus* against the Jansenists. The court would have silenced that dispute or, have compromised it. Both parties were, however, obstinate; and the court, being obliged to give way to the one or to the other, thought it expedient to close with the parliament. But the power of the parliaments was still more visible in the expulsion of the jesuits, that strong and politic, but envied and hated order, whom many believed to be countenanced, at the same time that they could not be protected, by the court.

C H A P. II.

Contest between the administration and parliaments of France. Money edicts. Remonstrances. Governors sent to register the edicts by force. Arret against the duke of Fitz James by the parliament of Tholouse. Proceedings at Rouen and at Grenoble. Further remonstrances. Effect of these dissensions. Spain. Dispositions of France with regard to peace. Louisiana.

THE parliaments, having thus brought France into the ap-

pearance of a country governed solely by known laws, have shewn that

that they possess a power capable of maintaining it in that condition, by resisting and punishing all those who, under the pretence of whatever orders, or with whatever support, infringe those rights which the parliaments claim as constitutional. A memorable instance of this power has been given by the parliaments of Tholouse, Normandy, and Grenoble.

The conduct of these parliaments shews so evidently the spirit of the French Judicature, and the character of the court and ministry, that we shall be readily excused for dwelling upon it for a few pages. The interior dispositions of the sovereign and people of France are always matters worthy of the attention of her neighbours.

On the 24th of April 1763, the king issued an edict for the continuance of some taxes, which were to have ended with the war; and for imposing some new ones, apparently of no very heavy nature; but other regulations were made of great importance, viz. for enabling the crown to redeem its debts at twenty years purchase of their *then produce*, excepting such as were in the hands of the first proprietors, who had *paid the whole capital*, or their heirs; these latter, and those only, were not to receive reimbursement below the capital.

These edicts furnished the parliaments, who were ready enough to catch at much lighter occasions of complaint, with matter for the heaviest. They looked on these edicts, all of them, as burthens on the people, some as violations of the public faith. Almost all the parliaments of France took fire at once. Without previous concert,

but animated by a participation of the same spirit, they all resolved on the most strenuous opposition; and they determined to take this opportunity, not only of frustrating the edicts, but of setting up their authority at so high a point, as to prevent all abuse of the same kind in future.

They refused to register the edicts, and they prepared the strongest remonstrances. The remonstrance of the Parliament of Paris was pathetic, firm, May 19th, full of energy, but temperate and guarded in 1763.

the expression. In that of the parliament of Rouen, the flame of liberty, which Aug. 5th. had long lain smothered, burst out into a full blaze.

“ We thought it our duty,” said that learned body, “ to remonstrate to your majesty, that the registering that edict and declaration is irreconcilable with your glory, the good of the state, and the rights of mankind. Whatsoever favours of constraint, wounds the honour of the throne. A manly and respectful freedom has always been the glory of every prince, under whose reign the subjects have made it their guide.

“ Your people, sire, are unhappy; all things proclaim this sad truth. Your courts of parliament, the only voice of the nation, cease not to tell it. No, sire, it is but too true; and we cannot too often repeat it, your people are miserable.

“ It is not from this day, that we are to date the calamities that desolate the several parts of your state. Your parliaments have found themselves more
“ than

“ than once under a necessity to
 “ lay before you the sad descrip-
 “ tion of them. Your majesty
 “ could not behold it, without
 “ being affected. But what does
 “ it signify to the felicity of
 “ Frenchmen, that their sove-
 “ reign shares, by reflection, in
 “ the evils they really suffer, if
 “ the mercenary spirit which de-
 “ vours them, is substituted to that
 “ which ought to proscribe and
 “ punish it?

“ The termination of the war
 “ ought to put an end to our mi-
 “ sery. Peace should have intro-
 “ duced in France the sweets
 “ with which it is attended among
 “ all other nations. The capital
 “ of the kingdom was preparing
 “ to celebrate the return thereof,
 “ and with shouts of joy to dedi-
 “ cate a monument designed to
 “ eternize its sensibility, and the
 “ memory of a beloved monarch.
 “ But, instead of this, nothing but
 “ signs of grief appeared.

“ It is to promote the happiness
 “ of those who are placed under
 “ your care, that you are invested
 “ with the supreme authority.
 “ Your subjects have a right to
 “ your beneficence. They have
 “ therefore, a right to the easiest
 “ and least burthensome method
 “ of contributing to the wants of
 “ the state. This right, which is
 “ founded in nature, belongs to
 “ every nation in the world, what-
 “ ever may be its form of govern-
 “ ment. It is principally the
 “ right of the *Franks*, and in a
 “ more especial manner that of
 “ your province of Normandy.
 “ The *Norman Charter* furnishes,
 “ on this head, the most respect-
 “ able monuments of our national
 “ immunities, and of the justice

“ of the kings, your august pre-
 “ decessors. We there find, *that*
 “ *no tax can be laid on your subjects*
 “ *of this province, unless it be*
 “ *agreed to in the assembly of the*
 “ *people, of the three estates.* This
 “ charter subsists in its full force;
 “ it makes part of your people’s
 “ rights, which you swore to
 “ maintain before Him *by whom*
 “ *kings reign.*”

In the periods of the most vio-
 lent contests between right and
 prerogative in Great Britain, the
 voice of freedom was never raised
 to a higher pitch.

Even the *Chambre des Aides* of
 the parliament of Paris, whose
 stile was something more reserved,
 closes one of its remonstrances
 with this very remarkable request,
 that, if the king doubts of the fi-
 delity of their representations, he
 would be pleased to hear the peo-
 ple themselves, by convoking the
 states general of the kingdom.

From the south they echoed
 without any diminution the voice
 of the northern parliaments. “ As
 “ often,” says the parliament of
 Bourdeaux, “ as we register an
 “ edict for laying a tax upon the
 “ people, we, in consequence of
 “ the oath we have taken to the
 “ king, bear witness on the one
 “ hand, to the people, that the
 “ tax is just, and that we know of
 “ no other less burthensome, less
 “ illegal, less tedious way of rais-
 “ ing the necessary supplies; and
 “ we bear witness to the king, on
 “ the other hand, that his people,
 “ ever filled with that zeal for his
 “ service, ever animated with that
 “ patriotic spirit, which is so ne-
 “ cessary to be kept up, are still
 “ in a condition to furnish the
 “ supplies demanded. These form

“ the questions, which the con-
 “ science of every member puts
 “ to him, who is thus placed be-
 “ tween the king and his people,
 “ under the eyes of a God, who
 “ is the terrible avenger of all
 “ falsehood and prevarication. By
 “ registering a money edict, every
 “ member makes himself answer-
 “ able to his conscience for the
 “ truth of these affirmations, thus
 “ discharging the conscience of
 “ the prince from any reproach
 “ of violence or oppression, at the
 “ same time that he confirms the
 “ people in the essential princi-
 “ ples of love, gratitude, respect,
 “ and submission to their sove-
 “ reign.”

Nothing can be more just, or conceived in a more noble manner. At Tholouse, at Grenoble, at Besançon, they pursued the same measures, and held the same language.

The court was alarmed at this opposition, but did not, however, immediately give up its point. It had recourse to the direct power of the crown, which had not long since been, or was at least deemed, irresistible. They sent down the governors of the several provinces, with orders in the king's name to register the edicts by force, and to cause them to be obeyed.

The duke of Fitz James was sent to Tholouse; Monsieur du Mesnil to Grenoble; and the duke of Harcourt to Rouen.

The parliament of Tholouse, firm to their first resolves, determined to give the governor an early impression of their spirit. They strictly enjoined the magistrates not to pay him any honours as governor of the province, until his commission

was first presented to them, and until his character was by them recognized.

The duke, who is the grandson of James II. of England, took his seat in parliament in quality of peer of France, and caused the edict to be registered. The parliament, on their side, passed an arret, declaring the register void, and forbidding all obedience to the edict. This arret, in his turn, Fitz James caused to be erased. Things were now come to extremities; guards were set upon the houses of some of the principal magistrates, and the rest were threatened with the same restraint. But these patriots, rather provoked than terrified with this rigour, and animated by the conflict which now arose between law and military power, were far from remitting of the firmness of their proceedings. On the contrary, they rose under the oppression, and this act of violence drew from them further and more powerful exertions of the spirit of liberty than had ever hitherto appeared in France.

Whilst they were struggling in this manner, the neighbouring parliament of Provence took fire; and, engaging in the cause of their brethren of Tholouse, drew up remonstrances to the king, in a stile glowing with resentment and indignation, and in a spirit which no words can adequately express but their own. In these they represent
 “ the dreadful spectacle presented
 “ to the people: desolation en-
 “ tering the sanctuary of justice,
 “ the liberty of the magistrates
 “ oppressed, their voices stifled,
 “ their safety violated, their for-
 “ tunes buried under the ruins of
 “ the

“ the law, and the supreme right
 “ of registering acknowledged in
 “ appearance to render them ac-
 “ complices or victims of a pro-
 “ ject of destruction, and the in-
 “ struments of arbitrary power.

“ And more especially the un-
 “ heard-of outrage, which, in the
 “ capital of Languedoc, the mi-
 “ nisters of the laws have expe-
 “ rienced, and, in their persons,
 “ the body of the magistracy, the
 “ whole nation, and the throne
 “ itself, whose power and maje-
 “ sty are equally wounded by ty-
 “ rannical acts, which exhibit to
 “ astonished France force armed
 “ against the laws, of which it
 “ should be the support; justice
 “ in bondage; a subject erecting
 “ himself into despotism; and all
 “ this under the reign of a mo-
 “ narch, the father of his people,
 “ and the protector of mankind.

“ That if his parliament, in
 “ the abyss of their grief and af-
 “ fliction, can yet employ them-
 “ selves in other objects, it is an
 “ effort of their zeal, supported
 “ by the firmest confidence, that
 “ the remembrance of such an
 “ event shall not be transmitted
 “ to posterity, without an exam-
 “ ple capable of revenging the
 “ glory of the king, the public
 “ liberty, and the laws.”

The legal vengeance, which this remonstrance threatened, the parliament of Thoulouse, as soon as it could assemble, began to execute. They came to a resolution of apprehending their governor, acting with the authority, and under the immediate direction, of the crown, and proceeding against him as a

criminal. An arret ap-
 Dec. 11th, peared, in which, after a
 1763. bitter complaint, in the
 tenor of the preceding remonstrance,

it is declared, that the said court has ordered, “ that the said duke
 “ of Fitz James shall be bodily
 “ taken and seized, wheresoever
 “ he may be found in the king-
 “ dom, and brought to the pri-
 “ sons of the court; and, in case he
 “ cannot be apprehended, his es-
 “ tates and effects shall be seized,
 “ or put under the administration
 “ of a legal commissary, according
 “ to the ordinances, &c.”

The proceedings of the duke of Harcourt in Normandy were altogether similar to those of the duke of Fitz James in Languedoc; the resistance on the part of the parliament was equally spirited, and the arret to apprehend their governor so exactly the same, that it would be almost a repetition of the former proceedings to relate it.

Monsieur du Meinil imitated the conduct of the other two governors, and shared the same fortune. The parliament of Grenoble did not in the least fall short of the brave example of their brethren in Rouen and Thoulouse.

The event of these violent disputes, we may almost call them convulsions, in the state of France, is not yet known to the compilers of this work with sufficient clearness; nor, if our accounts were more satisfactory, would it be to our present purpose to relate it more at large, as we mean no more than to exhibit to the reader a faithful picture of the spirit which has risen to so high a degree in a country hitherto distinguished by a passive acquiescence in the will of its sovereigns. From hence the reader may be enabled to form a judgment of the influence it may have upon the political conduct of that great nation.

Much

Much more is to be expected from the event of these dissensions in France, than from the internal movement of the affairs in Russia. Whatever turn affairs may finally take in the latter country, we know it can scarcely lead to any constitutional alteration. The government may be more or less firm, but still it will be the same government. The natural powers of the country may be increased or diminished in their exertion, but this will produce no alteration in their principle. But what effect the growth of freedom, which is a capital revolution, may have in France, it is impossible distinctly to point out, though it cannot be indifferent.

In regard to her own real happiness, there is no doubt but such a change must tend greatly to augment it; but with regard to her external strength, and to the figure she may make in the political system, which is all that we here consider, it is extremely difficult to determine whether the change will be to her advantage or detriment. Without liberty, Great Britain would dwindle into a contemptible state; possessed of freedom, France might possibly become less formidable.

As to Spain, that court, to all appearance, still remains, and is likely to remain, entirely subject to the influence of French councils. The personal character and dispositions of one who stands high in that state, may possibly cause some irregularity in her proceedings; but, in the main, we may be fully assured, that, as long as

France finds it her interest to continue punctual in her observance of the peace, Spain will scarcely take any step by which it may be violated. Thus, much advantage may be derived from a conjunction, which in every other particular we may have so much solid reason to lament.

That France will, on her part, seriously endeavour to fulfil her engagements, we are satisfied; not only from the considerations already mentioned, but from another proof thereof very strong and unequivocal; the payment of so large a sum for the subsistence of her prisoners. The disbursement of money from one rival state to another, does not look very like a preliminary step to a war between them.

But, at the same time, it is extremely difficult to determine, to which nation a continuance of the peace will prove the most advantageous; as this depends upon the natural powers of each nation, and those permanent resources, which will enable it to get the better of the accidental waste of strength which it suffered in the war. Much, too, will depend on the care and capacity of the ministers in each nation, to profit of these resources, and to turn the opportunities of peace to the most profitable account. To calculate the force of one of these principles, and to guess at the exertion of the other, requires more knowledge of men and facts than can be acquired in our situation. It may not be an easy task in any.

C H A P. III.

Election of a king of Poland. Parties there. Conduct of the neighbouring powers. Poniatowski recommended by Russia and Prussia. Opposition to the foreign troops. Protest against the diet of election. Branitzky divested of his command. He and Radziwil defeated and driven out of Poland. Ambassadors of France and Austria retreat. Poniatowski elected.

THE last year concluded with the preparations for the election of a king of Poland, in which so many powers were interested, and which was, almost, the single point that threatened any remarkable disturbance to the public tranquillity. For though the election to the empire of Germany was then also depending, and that it was in itself a point of much greater importance, it was so effectually provided for, that no disturbance was apprehended on that account. But, besides the foreign interests concerned in the election of a king of Poland, so many strong domestic factions subsisted, with so many opportunities to act, that dangerous convulsions might well be feared both within and without that kingdom.

The great political division was (as hath been observed in our work of last year) upon the preference of a native (whom they usually call a *Piaſt*) or a foreigner. The reasons, upon which these parties grounded their several opinions, have already been stated. Austria, France, and Spain, as connected with the house of Saxony, were

of the latter party; the former was embraced by Muscovy, Prussia, and Turkey; two of these powers having previously fixed upon a person whose pretensions they determined to support. An army of Russians entered into Poland, and approached Warsaw; the Prussians appeared on one frontier, and a body of Turks assembled on the other.

The candidate, who had united these great potentates in his favour, was count Poniatowski, of the illustrious family of that name, powerful by its dependencies and alliances. He was a man, by his personal qualifications, by his striking virtues, and his various acquirements by study and travel, fitted to fill and dignify any station. If the constitution of Poland would ever suffer it to emerge, it could not have better chances for becoming considerable under any prince. He was solemnly recommended, as well as effectually supported by the above-mentioned powers.

However, the friendship of the great powers, which this nobleman had acquired by his virtues

raised

raised him many enemies, and no small opposition, within the kingdom. The great house of Radzivil, and count Branitzki, who was extremely powerful by his office of crown general, declared against him, and acted with great violence in this opposition. The one opposed him with all the force of a family, which could raise an army of its dependants; the other with the army of the republic, not, perhaps, more considerable, but of which his office had given him the entire command. As these forces were far from being contemptible, so their pretences were far from unpopular. They did not oppose the election of a native; but they contended that this election ought to be free; and they could not bear that, under the name of preserving the liberty of Poland, a foreign army should openly, and almost avowedly, dispose of its crown. This was their complaint; but it was not new, and never could produce any effect. That constitution, which they so ardently asserted, necessitated this very dependence on foreign powers, of which they so loudly complained.

On the other hand, count Poniatowski, besides his foreign connections, had a very large party within the kingdom. He was nearly related to the family of Czartorinski, perhaps at this time the most powerful in Poland. The chief of that house might himself have formed a considerable party to raise him to the crown; but he gave way to the pretensions of his kinsman, and supported him with all his interest.

The archbishop of Gnesna, pri-

mate of Poland, has, during the interregnum, the right of convoking the diets, and acts in that troubled interval with almost all the authority of a king. The Poles have, not unwisely, vested this authority rather in an ecclesiastical person than in any of their great nobility, as his views on the crown must be taken away by his sacerdotal character, and as the same character is less liable to lead him to any violent and tumultuary proceeding. This prelate, whose influence on the election must necessarily be very great, was entirely devoted to Poniatowski. With these internal interests, supported by so strong a foreign force, Poniatowski offered himself as a candidate. ^{Aug. 23,} His kinsman Czartorinski was chosen marshal or ^{1764.} speaker of the diet, and every thing proceeded very prosperously in his favour.

The other party, however, had not been idle, either during the election of the nuncios or representatives, who, in the name of the body of the nobility, were to chuse a king, nor at the ^{May 7th.} first assembling of the ^{1764.} states. In the former case great tumults were raised, but they did not subsist long. In the latter twenty-two senators entered a protest against the proceedings of the diet, the principal reasons of which were grounded on the presence and interference of the foreign troops. Forty-five nuncios signed an act of adhesion to this protest.

Count Branitzki, who was at the head of these protesters, retired from the diet. But that assembly, soon

soon after its opening, revenged itself. An order was made for divesting him of the post of crown general. Branitzki denied their power; drew together into one body a great part of that army of which they had attempted to deprive him, but which still faithfully adhered to him; augmented it by levies; and prepared to maintain himself by force; possessed, as it should seem, by a spirit of despair and fury, having no power in the least adequate to the height of his attempt. Prince Radzivil, on his part, was also up in arms, and with the same obstinacy, and no greater strength, struggled against the election.

The ambassadors of France, Spain, and the Empire, finding their political intrigues of no more force towards obstructing the election, than the hostile attempts of prince Radzivil and count Branitzki were likely to be, June 7th. retired from the diet and 1764. left Poland, declaring that they had not been sent to a party, but to the whole republic.

An action, at length, happened between prince Radzivil July 3d. and the Russian troops, wherein the Poles, having fought a long time with their useful irregular bravery, were, as usual, defeated by the Russians.

The spirit of Poland appeared strongly in all the circumstances of this action. The princess Radzivil, but newly married, and a sister of that prince, both of them young and beautiful, fought on horseback with sabres, and encouraged the soldiery both by their words and their example.

Branitzki was also defeated by a body of Russians; and these two lords, the only very considerable persons who opposed the Russian nomination, were obliged to fly out of their country, and to take shelter in the Turkish dominions, where they particularly value themselves on protecting the unfortunate; and these noble fugitives found refuge where Charles XII. had found it.

In the mean time the Poles proceeded with great tranquillity in ordering their own affairs, correcting whatever they judged amiss in the preceding reign, and bringing back their government to its primitive institution and first principles. This is their usual method during an interregnum; and, in consequence of their enquiries, they not only make several new laws, but settle their *pacta conventa*, which is a solemn compact, by which, in substance, the king engages himself, upon oath, to maintain the republic on the footing upon which it was delivered into his hands; and to take no steps, by which the freedom of the country may be endangered, and the elective nature of the crown changed to an hereditary succession. There are other provisions of detail, but this is the spirit of that compact.

The diet and the kingdom being freed, in the manner we have seen, from all those who were the declared opposers of Poniatowski, the election was soon concluded in favour of that prince, with an unanimity unknown in the annals of Poland. His own great qualities, his popularity in his country, his powerful connections, the

the favour of the prince primate, and the countenance of the great potentates of the north, smoothed his way to the throne, which he ascended with the most auspicious appearances, and to the general satisfaction, on the 7th of September, by the name and titles of Stanislaus Augustus, king of Poland, and grand duke of Lithuania.

Soon after his election, he received letters of congratulation from all the courts by whom his cause had been espoused. The most remarkable is that from the king of Prussia, written with his majesty's own hand. From the matter and the occasion, as well as the character of the writer, it is extremely worthy of being inserted at length. Nothing can be more glorious than a communication of such sentiments in the intercourse between sovereigns.

“ Your majesty must reflect, that
 “ as you enjoy a crown by elec-
 “ tion, and not by descent, the
 “ world will be more observant of
 “ your majesty's actions than of
 “ any other potentate in Europe ;

“ and it is but reasonable. The
 “ latter being the mere effect of
 “ consanguinity, no more is look-
 “ ed for (though much more is
 “ to be wished) from him, than
 “ what men are endowed with in
 “ common ; but from a man ex-
 “ alted, by the voice of his equals,
 “ from a subject to a king, from a
 “ man voluntarily elected to reign
 “ over those by whom he was cho-
 “ sen, every thing is expected that
 “ can possibly deserve and adorn a
 “ crown. Gratitude to his peo-
 “ ple is the first great duty of such
 “ a monarch : for to them alone
 “ (under providence) he is indebt-
 “ ed that he is one. A king, who is
 “ so by birth, if he acts derogatory
 “ to his station, is a satire only on
 “ himself ; but an elected one, who
 “ behaves inconsistent with his
 “ dignity, reflects dishonour also
 “ on his subjects. Your majesty,
 “ I am sure, will pardon this
 “ warmth. It is the effusion of the
 “ sincerest regard. The amiable
 “ part of the picture is not so much
 “ a lesson of what you ought to
 “ be, as a prophecy of what your
 “ majesty will be.”

C H A P. IV.

Disturbance in Russia. Prince Ivan. He is visited by the Empress. A guard is set upon him. Scheme of Mirowitz. Is put on guard in the castle of Schlusfelburgh. Seizes the governor. Attacks the prince's guards. Prince Ivan murdered. Mirowitz surrenders. Is executed.

WHILST the empress of Russia was employed abroad in disposing of crowns, at home her throne seemed to be tottering under her ; and that vast power, which extended to the remotest parts of Asia, which awed all Europe, and absolutely governed so

many of its neighbours, was not secure of its own duration for a moment. Every breath of a conspiracy seemed to shake it ; and such was the critical state of that empire, that the designs of the obscurest person in it were not without danger.

In the course of this summer, an event of this nature happened in Russia, which is deserving of a place in history, from the extraordinary circumstances which attended it; though so extremely mysterious and unaccountable in many particulars, that we despair of affording any clear satisfaction to the reader concerning them. They shall be related according to the materials we possess.

When her present imperial majesty came to the throne of Russia in so extraordinary a manner, it was very necessary that she should take every step to secure her safety, and carefully reconnoitre every avenue by which she might possibly be attacked. In this search an opening appeared, through which a way might be easily made to new revolutions.

The reader, who is at all conversant in the Russian history, will readily recollect, that Ivan, or John, son of Anthony prince of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, and the princess Anne of Mecklenburgh, succeeded to the empire of Russia on the death of the empress Anne Iwanowna in 1739. This prince, proclaimed and deposed in his cradle, too young to be sensible of the great revolution of which he was the object, remained in confinement and obscurity from that period. Most people were even ignorant whether he was alive or dead. But the late empress, with a magnanimity not common in her situation or her country, whilst she removed him from the eyes and attention of the people, permitted to live a person who had worn her crown.

This person, however, was of too much importance to be entire-

ly neglected by the present empress. The very first object which occurred to her, amidst the cares of her new and yet unsettled government, was, to examine into the state and qualifications of this royal prisoner, whose singular fate she deplored, and whose misfortunes she was resolved as far as possible to alleviate; in this particular far exceeding the generosity of her predecessor, who thought enough had been done in permitting him to live. She even condescended personally to visit this unfortunate prince, in order to form a judgment of his understanding and talents. To her great surprise she found him to the last degree deficient in both. She observed in him a total privation of sense and reason, with a defect in his utterance, that, even had he any thing rational to utter, would have rendered him entirely unintelligible.

The empress, the characteristic of whose nature is benevolence and compassion, who had lamented with so many tears a bad husband whom she was obliged to depose, was now to the last degree affected by the marks of incapacity and weakness which appeared in a competitor to her crown. Consoling herself however, as well as she was able, she gave directions that he should be treated with great care and tenderness, though his condition rendered him incapable of perceiving, and much more of acknowledging, those striking marks of her humanity. Extending her tenderness yet further, that in his unfortunate circumstances he should not be molested, she ordered a guard to be placed over his person, under the command of two trusty officers; and with strict injunctions that none should approach him. Under this

this guard he remained in the castle or fortrefs of Schluffelburgh, not far from Petersburgh.

All persons, however, were not so thoroughly convinced of the incapacity of this prince. He was now arrived at the age of twenty-four years, and he might evidently be made an instrument, or at least a pretence, for exciting dangerous commotions. His plausible title to the crown, of which he had been formerly in possession, his long sufferings without any other guilt than that possession and that title, his youth, and even the obscurity which attended his life (and which, therefore, gave latitude for conjecture and invention,) formed very proper materials for working on the minds of the populace.

Actuated by such notions, a person of no consideration but from the boldness of his attempts, one Mirowitz, a second lieutenant in the regiment of Smolensko, formed a design of setting this prince at liberty, and of putting him at the head of a party. In pursuance of this design, he tampered with some of the soldiers of the garrison of Schluffelburgh, whom he gained over to his project. He then desired to be put on guard, though out of his turn; probably because his regular turn did not coincide with the time in which his associates were to be on guard.

This extraordinary step seems not to have excited any suspicions in a governor who was intrusted with so very important and critical a charge. Mirowitz obtained his request; and every thing being prepared for the attempt, at two in the morning he suddenly called up the main guard, formed it into a line,

and ordered the soldiers to load with ball. Berenikoff, governor of the fortrefs, alarmed with the noise caused by these motions, ran out of his apartments to enquire into the reason of this disturbance. He was answered by a blow with the butt end of a musket on his head, which laid him on the ground.

Mirowitz, having wounded and secured the governor, lost no time to improve his advantage. He advanced furiously at the head of his troop, and attacked the handful of soldiers who guarded prince Ivan. He was received with spirit by the guard, who quickly repulsed him. These conspirators, at the same time the most desperate and the most timid of mankind, were obliged to retire, though they had not a single man killed, or even wounded in the slightest manner.

Thus disheartened without any loss, they did not, however, desist from their enterprize. But, not daring to charge again with musquetry, Mirowitz ordered a piece of cannon to be brought from the ramparts, and they prepared to batter the place.

The commanders of the guard which was set on the prince, on seeing this formidable preparative, thought it expedient to take counsel together. And first, they held it impossible to resist such a superior force as that which they had lately beaten off. Then they took into consideration the dreadful consequences which must inevitably ensue, to the public peace and the safety of the empire, if their prisoner should be enlarged; and, lastly, they set before their eyes the punishment that would be inflicted

inflicted on them by the laws, in case their charge should be taken from them, though against their will, and after all possible resistance.

On this consultation, they came to the dreadful resolution of assassinating the unfortunate prince, over whose life they were to watch, unterrified with the dangers which manifestly waited this horrid act, directly hanging over them from a desperate force, which (to give any colour to their proceeding) they must have concluded irresistible.

Those who pretend to be particular in the detail of this dark transaction, relate, that prince Ivan was in his bed and asleep, when the captain of the guard entered his chamber. The first blow was but slight, and served only to rouse him from his sleep. Attacked in this sudden manner, and wholly unprepared for defence, he, notwithstanding, made a vigorous struggle for his life, and even broke the sword of the assassin; but, another coming in to the assistance of the former, they soon overpowered him, and laid this unfortunate prince dead at their feet.

When they had perpetrated this fact, they took the dead body, and exposed it, reeking with blood, and pierced with ten stabs, to the eyes of the conspirators, with these words: "There is your emperor, let him now head you."

This sight, which might naturally be expected to augment the fury, at the same time that it completed the despair, of the assassins, produced quite a contrary effect. Mirowitz, who had the spirit to contrive and execute so

daring a project, seemed to lose all sense and courage in a moment. He did not urge forward to revenge either himself, or the prince whose death he brought on, whilst he sought his liberty, and whose body lay before him mangled in that manner, which has in many instances served to inflame, but never before to quiet the minds of the mutinous and discontented. Neither did he or his associates endeavour to save themselves by flight; but all of them, with the utmost calmness, surrendered themselves captives to the governor, who was at this very time their prisoner.

It cannot be expected that the authors of this narrative should be able to remove all the difficulties, which, whatever system may be followed to solve them, naturally must arise in the mind of the readers of this melancholy and astonishing transaction.

The empress, who was extremely affected at the news of so tragical an event, omitted no means to clear herself from all suspicion of having the least share in it. It is true, that she profited in this instance by the defeated machinations of her enemies. But there is no reason from any part of her conduct to conclude, that the Russian court could have connived at, much less have encouraged, an attempt of that nature. The trial of the conspirators was remitted to the senate; they condemned Mirowitz to death, and he was publicly executed in pur-
Sept.
suance of his sentence. 26th.
The inferior actors in this design did not suffer death, but were subjected to other punishments perhaps not less severe. The officers, who put the prince
to

to death, were, in consideration of their good intentions to the quiet of the state, amply rewarded for their fidelity. A manifesto appeared by authority, giving an ac-

count of the whole procedure. It was filled with expressions of humanity and piety, which sort of language seems to be the office style of the court of Petersburg.

C H A P. V.

Parliament meets. State of parties. Wilkes's affair. Message to the house. Both houses address. North Briton censured, and burnt by the hands of the common hangman. Question of privilege; debates thereupon. Wilkes retires to France. He is expelled.

HAVING taken notice of the internal state of the other great powers of Europe, it is now time to say something of our own country. The three factions, which we described in the close of our history of last year, still continued; though in their visible operations they seemed reduced to two only; those who supported the administration as it was then settled, and those who opposed it.

During the summer, the light troops of party, the pamphleteers and news-writers, kept skirmishing with great alacrity, in verse and in prose. The libellous spirit, which animated those productions, was raised to the highest pitch of audacity and insolence. Character no longer depended upon the tenor of a man's life and actions; it was entirely determined by the party he had taken. Neither innocence nor dignity were a protection.

The peace, to which so trifling an opposition had been made in parliament, either in debate or division, was the principal topic. It was agitated with great heat by all; but by one writer with such remarkable indecency and boldness, that the secretaries of state

thought themselves obliged, after a long forbearance, in vindication of injuries offered to the throne itself, to take up the author. The process for this purpose was a loose office form, which had been constantly practised from the Revolution, and never in any instance censured during that period. But the present times were more critical. As a cry had been raised that the administration was conducted upon arbitrary principles, a severe scrutiny was made into all the actions of the ministry, with a view of pursuing them to extremity if they were found to deviate from the exact principles of the most rigid law.

The warrant used on this occasion was *general*; to take up the authors, printers, and publishers of a seditious and treasonable paper, called the North Briton, N^o 45, together with their papers, without (otherwise than by the designation of the crime) specially naming or describing the criminals. This loose method of process was still more

loosely executed, and upon a much greater number of persons, and of a quality much lower, than was any way requisite

April 30th,
1763.

sute for the purposes of prevention or punishment. But this procedure had been usual; and, the treatment of such persons being always mild and indulgent, and their danger from prosecution great, happy to escape, they never thought of revenge, and, therefore, had not hitherto very critically scrutinized the legality of the process by which they were apprehended.

The proceeding, too, against the person principally concerned (Mr. Wilkes) was attended with some circumstances of rigour, which were not called for by the occasion; *close* imprisonment was directed, and the *use of pen, ink, and paper* forbidden. But the usual unexamined course of the secretaries office, and the zeal and indignation of the noble persons who filled it, against so great an offence, may well excuse that irregularity in the proceeding. When people began to cool, the fault appeared, almost to all, to be nothing worse than an irregularity; at that time it was very differently considered. Even the committal to the Tower, which was chosen from respect to the person of a member of parliament, was employed to excite terror, and to swell the popular alarm.

May 6th. Mr. Wilkes, on bringing his *Habeas Corpus*, was released, without bail, by the court of common pleas. The judges of that court were unanimously of opinion, that privilege of parliament, extended to the case for which he was committed.

Beyond all measure was the popular party elated by this success. Mobs attended the prisoner with praises and acclamations where-

ever he went. With very moderate sufferings, he was considered as the martyr of liberty; and his discharge, on account of privilege, was supposed a point gained to the freedom of every individual.

This popular heat was kept alive with great art and industry. The persons who were taken up by the warrants, which we have just mentioned, upon various complaints, sought redress at law, and obtained (such was the temper, which, by being diffused amongst the people, was thought to have influenced the jury) damages greatly beyond their real sufferings, and, possibly, beyond their most sanguine expectations.

These actions were prosecuted in such a manner, that the public attention to them was kept continually alive. It seemed as if freedom had every day a new conflict to undergo, and obtained every day a new victory. Administration, on the other hand, opposed them by all the advantages which the law allows to those who act on the defensive; and sometimes by the interposal of privilege kept this matter still longer in agitation; insomuch that, until the meeting of parliament, scarcely any thing else could enter into the thoughts or conversation of the people. On this point, therefore, it was expected the great trial of strength and skill in the ensuing session would be made.

Neither party seemed willing to decline this combat. One prepared with a complaint of the abuse of the liberty of the press, and of the privilege of parliament; the other of the violation of that liberty and that privilege, and the

blow aimed at the freedom of every subject by the process of the secretaries office.

In this contest, administration had the advantage of the first blow. In the speech from the throne it was contrived, that mention should be made of the peace, in order to draw from parliament a reiterated approbation to that measure; and to signalize the triumph of the ministry upon that very point on which the opposition had been most successful during the adjournment of the two houses. There was no doubt of their success. The parliament could not refuse to justify its own act; and this would not indeed necessarily, but naturally enough, lead them to the censure of those writings which had involved men of all parties, and the whole legislature, in one accusation.

It was in the same spirit they resolved on a stroke against that privilege on which their prosecution had been eluded during the summer, in order to defeat the adversary in all his strong holds. Possibly, some friends of the ministry might also think by this means to cast a sort of oblique reflection on the respectable person, whose judgment on this point had given their enemies so great an advantage over them.

As their success in these matters must give the ministry the most signal advantage, and impress the public with the highest ideas of their power and stability, so the attempt was bold, and not unattended with difficulties. To persuade parliament to censure a piece actually under legal examination; to proceed against their member, who was under a crimi-

nal prosecution; or to limit that privilege of parliament, which so lately was confirmed, not by their own votes, but by the strict rules of a court of justice, was an attempt of some spirit.

On the other hand, the party in opposition, besides the benefit which they derived from these circumstances, whilst they acted on the defensive, had several advantages from them, if they chose to proceed offensively. They had besides one capital charge of illegality, which they might, with great plausibility, make upon the secretaries warrants.

But, however violently these affairs were agitated before the meeting of parliament, when they came to be examined in the house, the fervour of the party seemed greatly to decline. The speech from the throne spoke as strongly as possible of the attempts which had been made to divide the people. Both houses made as full a return as could be wished upon this article, as well as upon the peace, which they connected with it. But, before these addresses could be formed, a complaint was Nov. laid before the commons, 15th. according to the usual course, where any criminal process has been issued against a member, in a message from government, informing them of the supposed offence of Mr. Wilkes, and of the proceeding against him. The exceptionable paper was then laid before the house.

A very long and warm debate ensued. But the spirit, which seemed to animate the argument, had not a proportionable influence on the opinion of the members; the division against the question

was

was inconsiderable; though the resolution was couched in very strong terms, and could not fail of lying heavy upon all the opposition which might be raised to the subsequent prosecution of the person of the offender. It even affected the guard of privilege, which was proposed to be taken from the offence itself.

The resolution was, "that the
Nov. " paper, intituled, the
15th. " North Britain, No 45, is
" a false, scandalous, and
" seditious libel, containing ex-
" pressions of the most unexam-
" pled insolence and contumely
" towards his majesty, the grossest
" aspersions upon both houses of
" parliament, and the most auda-
" cious defiance of the authority
" of the whole legislature, and
" most manifestly tending to ali-
" enate the affections of the peo-
" ple from his majesty, to with-
" draw them from their obedience
" to the laws of the realm, and to
" excite them to traiterous insur-
" rections."

Then they resolved, by a majority equally clear, that the paper should be burnt by the hands of the common hangman; and, on a conference, the lords having agreed to the resolution on the libel, concurred in the sentence upon it.
Nov. They afterwards joined in
26th. an address, expressing their indignation for the contumely with which his majesty was treated in that libel, and for the outrage which had been offered to every branch of the legislature.

Administration continued to strike this matter whilst it was warm and capable of being beat into the form they desired. Having succeeded in the address and

the resolution, they proceeded without delay to their next measure, which was much more difficult, as well as important, the privilege.

On this, indeed, as on a much better ground, opposition made a vigorous stand in both houses. For the question being put, *that* Nov. *privilege of parliament does* 23d. *not extend to the case of writ- ing and publishing seditious libels, nor ought to be allowed to obstruct the ordinary course of the laws, in the speedy and effectual prosecution of so heinous and dangerous an offence,* they said, that the proposition itself was made without any sufficient reason, and that the doctrine, by which it was supported, was new, dangerous, and unwarrantable, viz. "that the personal privilege of both houses of parliament has never held, and ought not to hold, in the case of any criminal prosecution whatsoever;" by which all the records of parliament, all history, all the authorities of the gravest and soberest judges, are entirely rescinded; and the fundamental principles of the constitution, with regard to the independencies of parliament, torn up and buried under its most established rights.

That the very question itself, from the letter and spirit of it, contradicts this assertion; for, whilst it only narrows privilege in criminal matters, it establishes the principle.

They maintained strenuously, that, by the reason of the thing, by many authorities in law, by the late determination of the court of common pleas, and by two plain resolutions of the house of peers (so far as the question concerned their particular privilege)

lege) that the privilege of parliament does extend to all cases whatsoever, except treason, felony, and those offences in which *sureties of the peace* may be demanded. If privilege will not hold throughout in the case of a libel, it is because it is such an offence. But were ever sureties of the peace demanded in case of a libel? Libels are breaches of the peace only by inference and by construction, and not actually and in their own nature. They are not included in any definition given of a breach of the peace in any writer of approved authority; nor is the case of a libel by any such writers enumerated amongst the breaches of peace. On the contrary, it is always described as an act *tending to excite, provoke, or produce* breaches of the peace, and not as that offence itself; and though a secretary of state may be pleased to add the enflaming epithets of treasonable, traitorous, or seditious, to a particular paper, yet no words are strong enough to alter the nature of things.

They expatiated further on the method of relaxing the rule of privilege case by case, as of the greatest inconvenience, by rendering the rule itself precarious and uncertain; in consequence of which, the judges will neither know how to decide with certainty, nor the subject to proceed with safety, in this perilous business.

Lastly, they answered to the supposed inconvenience, that would attend this preservation of privilege in the case now before them, by saying, that it would equally hold in all other constructive breaches of

the peace; and that this argument, therefore, proves too much. But the best answer (because it removes all pretence of grievance) is this: that the two houses, upon complaint made, have the power (which they will exert in favour of justice) to deliver up the offender to prosecution. For it is a dishonourable and an undeserved imputation upon them, to suppose, even in argument, that they would nourish an impious criminal in their bosoms, against the call of offended justice, and the demand of their country.

Such were some of the arguments which, with great vehemence, and no small appearance of reason, were urged against the resolution. It was supported by expatiating on the dangerous nature of the offence of a libel, followed not only with consequences injurious to the peace of individuals, but pregnant in many cases with danger to the safety, and perhaps to the being, of the commonwealth; that, therefore, a libel, which in some cases might possibly be considered as an affair of no great magnitude, might also, according to its object, be a crime of a much higher order, not only than many of those slight offences for which sureties of the peace are demanded, but greater than several species of felony (all of which are allowed to be out of privilege), and bordering on treason itself.

The distinction, said they, of actual and constructive breaches of the peace is trifling and sophistical. The question is concerning the nature and weight of the offence, and not of the name by which it is called. That it would, in

in such a case, be ridiculous to allow a seditious libeller advantages, which are denied to an ordinary breaker of the peace; when sedition is a crime of so much greater guilt and importance than a menacing gesture, or even an actual assault. That the privilege of parliament is a privilege of a civil nature, instituted to preserve the member from being distracted in his attention to the business of the nation by litigations concerning his private property, but by no means to prove a protection for crimes.

If, said they, this distinction of breaches of the peace were to hold, members of parliament might not only libel public and private persons with impunity, but might, with the same impunity, commit many other misdemeanours and offences of the grossest nature, and the most destructive to morality and order; because they, as well as libels, are breaches of the peace but by construction and in their consequence. If privilege were of this nature, the freedom of the members would be the slavery of the subject, and the danger of the state.

Upon what had been asserted on the other side, “that no inconvenience could arise by the preservation of this privilege, because, on application to that house of parliament of which the delinquent was a member, he would certainly be given up to justice,” they observed, that this remedy might come too late; for, as the offender could not be arrested and held to bail, he might easily escape by the length of time necessary to be taken in that mode of

process, and by the public nature of the complaint.

Besides, this argument, if at all admitted, will prove too much; the same reasoning might hold as well in treason, felony, and actual breaches of the peace. No doubt, either house of parliament would, on complaint, deliver up their members charged with such offences; yet it is allowed, that the privilege neither does nor ought to cover them. And no one criminal matter seems more within the reason of privilege than another.

It is the argument in favour of criminal privilege that proves too much. The assertion, that this argument against it does so too, is not grounded; for a good deal is intended to be proved. Those, who are for declaring the law of privilege not to extend to the case of libels, do not mean to suppose all these other heinous offences of the same nature, upon which their declaration is silent, to be, therefore, within privilege. They deny it to exist in the case before them; that is all their present business; but they do neither thereby affirm, or imply it, in any other.

Privilege of parliament, being defined solely by the discretion of either house for itself, is a matter of the most delicate nature; it is, therefore, to be used with the utmost moderation. If it should be so exercised as to appear incompatible with the public peace or order, or even, perhaps, with the safety and quiet of individuals, the people might come to think that they lived under a constitution, injudiciously and even absurdly framed, in which the personal liberty of the representatives of a

free people might become inconsistent with their own. That the house, instead of enlarging its immunities beyond their original intention and spirit, instead of claiming an invidious and no very honourable privilege, ought to stand forward in giving a noble example of its moderation and its regard to justice. By agreeing to the resolution, it would give this practical lesson, and at the same time this comfortable security to the people, that no situation was a sanctuary for those who presumed to violate the law in any of its parts.

Nov. 24th. On some such reasons, the commons, though not without a strenuous opposition, agreed to the resolution; and in a conference this resolution was communicated to the other

Nov. 29th. house. They also concurred in it. The resistance in this house was still more considerable. A protest against it was signed by seventeen lords.

The North Briton having been declared a seditious libel by Dec. 1st. the concurring votes of both houses, and as such burnt by the common hangman, the commons proceeded in the complaint against Mr. W. as the author of it. This prosecution, which was begun and pushed forward with great earnestness, was, however, some time respited by an accident, which, though unfortunate to Mr. Wilkes, was advantageous to the party; for it still kept the popular spirit and hopes alive, which probably would have expired under an early and final decision of the house against him; the people without doors would have cooled, when they found him condemned by

that body of which he was a member, and disowned by that privilege to which he had fled for refuge.

In the heat of those disputes, in consequence of which some words arose, a duel was fought between Mr. W. and a gentleman of consideration; one of those many whom Mr. W. had, perhaps with little malice but much wantonness, attacked in those papers, which now drew on him at once, a legal prosecution, a parliamentary complaint, and a personal combat.

In this duel, Mr. W. was wounded; and the state of his health being represented to the house, the hearing on the charge against him was adjourned from time to time. During these adjournments, Mr. W. observing the decision of all the preliminary questions relative to his case, the vigour with which administration urged the prosecution, and the coldness with which every thing that was personal to him in these disputes was treated almost by the whole party, he thought it expedient to remove into Dec. 24th. France, until a change in administration might produce dispositions more favourable to him.

The last adjourned day of the complaint being arrived, the house, Jan. 19th, 1764. certified that he had refused to admit surgeons sent by their authority to examine into the state of his wound, and his retreat into France rather indicating a distrust of his cause, than any thing amiss in his constitution, proceeded regularly to hear evidence in support of the charge against him. They

They considered the letter and the apology he sent for his non-appearance, together with the testimony of the French surgeons, which accompanied it, as quite nugatory. If his wound had been in the condition in which he represented it, a journey to Paris was a strange measure; and the consequences arose from his own voluntary act.

The evidence appearing satisfactory as to the author, and the house having previously passed judgment on the piece, the question of expelling Mr. Wilkes was carried without difficulty; the division in his favour being inconsiderable.

In this manner the party abandoned the most zealous, the most resolute, and one of the most useful of their champions. They thought it necessary to purchase the credit of moderation even by this sacrifice. They were willing to shew that their opposition was grounded upon principle, not upon discontent; and that the administration, who accused them so freely of a factious procedure, could not, when the trial came, shew a greater desire to preserve the dignity of the throne from every species of affront. They hoped their conduct in that respect would appear even more dutiful than that of the ministry itself; since the ministry, in the prosecution of an affront to the throne, avenged their own private injuries; whilst the opposition, in respect to injured majesty, abandoned their best and most sanguine friends.

To fill the measure of the degradation of this late idol of the populace, a book, which he had privately printed and dispersed amongst his friends, was presented by one of the secretaries of state to the house of lords. This Jan. 19th. book, full of indecent and profane ribaldry, reflected on the character of a right reverend member of that house, whose vast extent of erudition and genius adds dignity and lustre to his high station. The peers proceeded against the author for a breach of privilege, while he was indicted in the courts below for blasphemy. And now expelled by one house; under the censure of the other; under a double prosecution for libel, and for blasphemy, he began to be abandoned by many of his warmest friends. Even the populace, though they did not disrelish faction, could not digest profaneness; they could forgive party malice, but were shocked at offences against decency and sober morals. Mr. W. was soon run to an out-lawry, for not appearing Nov. 1st. to the indictments against him; and the suits, which he had carried on against the secretaries of state, of course fell to the ground.

This completed the ruin of that unfortunate gentleman, who engaged for some time so great a part of the public attention, and whose wit, spirit, and good humour, if not carried to such unwarrantable excesses, merited, and would probably have met with, a very different fortune.

C H A P. VI.

Question of general warrants. Debates thereupon. Administration hard pushed. Question adjourned. State of the national supplies. Scheme of ways and means criticised. Observations on that controversy.

HITHERTO the triumph of administration was complete. Sentence had been passed on the cause and on the person of a principal adversary. They had even deprived all persons for the future of that privilege, which had been lately thought the strong-hold of writers for the opposition. But their turn was now come to be attacked themselves, upon a point on which they were somewhat fore, and not extremely strong.

On most of the preceding questions, there was, at the bottom, but little difference between any of the parties; an offence, which comprehended, at once, an attack upon the peace; an indignity to the crown; and a censure of the parliament; was, in a manner, the common cause. But on the question of the warrants used in the prosecution of this offence so unanimously condemned, the case was very different. The opposition had here no measures to keep. They had gone too far in representing these warrants as highly dangerous to liberty, to be able to recede with the least degree of decency. They had raised an alarm, and it was necessary that they should have the merit of quieting it by the application of some remedy adequate to the violence of the disease: or the advantage of keeping it up by the eclat of the

attempts they should make, and the zeal for liberty they should manifest, on the occasion. Neither of these methods could fail of answering their purposes.

There was also a favourable opportunity for those parties, which secretly divided the body that had hitherto supported government, to play their game. The royal majesty was in no wise concerned in this question; no measure pursued by any party was censured; no general plan of government was affected; the law only was to be declared, and the minds of the subject made easy upon a practice, the strict legality of which had not been defended by the warmest advocates for the administration. Nothing even of a personal censure was intended. These appearances were plausible; and many sober persons were seriously alarmed, to observe a practice prevalent in a great office contrary to what they considered as the clearest principles of law, and inconsistent with the manner of governing in a free country. The long and silent continuance of this practice, instead of excusing, only added to the danger of it.

Whatever the motives, that influenced the conduct and opinions of men on this point, might be, there was no doubt that, without aiming at the persons, a considerable

able stroke was aimed at the ministerial character and consideration of those in high stations. Many of those, therefore, who relished neither the administration, as it was then formed, nor the opposition, were of opinion, that the one might be humbled, and yet the other not materially exalted, by their appearing for a resolution condemning the general warrants.

Accordingly a resolution was proposed to the following effect:

Feb. " That a general warrant
14th. " for apprehending and
" seizing the authors, prin-
" ters, and publishers of a sedi-
" tious libel, together with their
" papers, is not warranted by law."

This proposition drew on a very long and very warm debate. Those who opposed it did not ground their opposition on an affirmance of the legality of the warrants (for, in general, they either admitted their illegality, or put that matter out of the question), but on the impropriety of the method proposed for settling the law of warrants. They argued that the house of commons, by itself, cannot declare law legislatively, because it is only a part and not the whole of the legislature; nor judicially, because it is neither the whole nor a part of any court of judicature.

That no abuse of warrants was, in itself, so dangerous an illegality, as an attempt to destroy the bounds which the wisdom of the constitution has assigned to the distinct powers which compose it; that this method could be productive of nothing but confusion, and injustice; of confusion, as the inferior acting magistrate could never have a certain rule for his conduct,

nor a certain judicature by which it was to be tried; for, whilst he looked for the rule of legality only in acts of parliament and in the common law, and endeavoured thence to form a rule for his conduct, there might, for aught he knew, be another in the journals of the house of commons. An action of his, for which he might stand clear before his ordinary judges, may be condemned by that body. He might also conceive doubts of the authority, in this particular, though he could entertain none, of the power of the house. Thus distracted, between a dread of their power and the necessity of executing his own as a magistrate, a general timidity and unsteadiness must ensue in the administration of justice, which would produce the most fatal effects upon the peace and good order of society.

Nor would it introduce a less dangerous confusion in the supreme courts of law, from the same causes. The constitution has taught them to believe, that the judicial power rests in them; and that, in the exercise of it, they are to be guided only by the whole legislature. But when they find that the house of commons takes upon itself to participate, if not to supersede, their power, and to alter their rule, with what degree of calmness of mind, and true judicial resolution, can they execute their high and important office? In vain are they made independent of the crown, if they are to be brought into a state of dependence on the house of commons. It is indifferent how they are influenced, if they are to take the direction of their judgments from any thing.

thing, but the known established laws of the land.

But, if this resolution should pass, not only a general public confusion would arise from it, but a great deal of particular injustice. The question of the legality or illegality of these warrant is, said they, now actually depending in a bill of exceptions before the ordinary judges. Ought the question to be prejudged, and the parties, taking the due course which the law allows them, to have their cause evoked to the house of commons, and condemned there by an arbitrary resolution? That is, to condemn men who acted upon the most numerous precedents, and of the best times; men, whose known character, and the tenor of whose whole conduct, had secured them from the least suspicion of an ill intention to liberty; men who, if they have made any mistakes, have in themselves, or those who acted for them, been severely animadverted on by the ordinary courts of justice.

Though the words of the resolution extend only to the case of libels, yet the reason and equity of this resolution extend to all general warrants, in all cases whatsoever; and will it be thought prudent to deprive magistrates of a power which is so often necessary to the public good? Conspiracies of the most dangerous nature have been nipped in the bud by these warrants. Manufacturers have been going off to foreign countries, who, if they had not been stopped and secured by general warrants, could never have been prevented from transferring some of the most valuable branches of our trade to other nations.

If such resolutions be at all proper, it is now at least premature. Why refuse to wait the determination of the courts? The courts may do that regularly, which is sought to be done with more trouble and less satisfaction in this new and irregular way. If the courts do not satisfy the expectation of the house by their determination, then it will be time enough for the commons to interpose. But if in reality the matter be so pressing in time and importance, that the people cannot (as it is represented) be satisfied that they are free, until the law on general warrants be declared, let it be declared in a way, that all are agreed is both effectual and constitutional, by act of parliament. The resolution proposed is neither the one nor the other. A bill, therefore, even on the principles of those who favour the resolution, is the only proper method.

In this manner the advocates for the administration opposed the resolution. They who supported it, insisted principally upon the evident illegality of the process by a *general warrant*. By such a warrant, the most innocent man may be dragged from his bed, and, at any hour of the night, be hurried to prison; his papers, the most secret and material, exposed to the knowledge of mean and indiscreet people, and liable to be lost and destroyed by their negligence. They said, that this kind of warrant had a peculiar and most monstrous quality, beyond almost all other kinds of oppressive practices, by leaving a discretionary power over the liberty of the subject, not to magistrates only, whose wisdom and regard to character might possibly

sibly somewhat temper that arbitrary authority, but to the lowest, and sometimes the most profligate of mankind, the inferior officers of justice. For these officers were left entirely to judge, by the latitude of the description, whom they should fix upon as the offender.

The illegality of the warrants being (as they said) established, the method proposed for preventing the future use of it was natural, constitutional, and within their own power. They did not pretend that the house of commons was the whole legislature, nor any part of the judicature of this kingdom; but they asserted it to be their undoubted right, a right established by clear and frequent precedent, to censure by their resolution any illegal practice which they observed to be prevalent; and this not to be cited as law in courts of justice, but to serve as a threat and a monition to those courts, and to all persons public and private, of what they are to expect, when they presume to quit the limits of the law, and to make any excursions into the regions of arbitrary power.

Nothing can be less satisfactory, said they, than our hopes from the decision of the courts, upon whose slow and uncertain progress the liberty of Englishmen is desired to attend. Can we look with a passive acquiescence on this kind of legal struggle about our most important concerns, whilst we see the privilege of parliament opposed to the remedy of the subject, and to prevent a determination upon a point of English liberty?

Affairs have been so managed, that the question of the warrants is not directly before the judges, and consequently this point is not in the way of being decided. How then does the house, by passing this resolution, usurp the jurisdiction of the courts, or predetermine a cause judicially depending before them? It is not, nor ever will be, before them.

With regard to the objection, that this resolution would tie up the hands of the magistrate, on dangerous occasions, where such warrants might be absolutely necessary, they gave it this answer; that the resolution confined itself solely to the case of libels, without stirring captiously so delicate a question of government. An use of general warrants will be justified by its necessity in so critical an exigence. But is the case of a libel such a case of necessity? The offence of a libel is not like that of a conspiracy against the state. There you apprehend, to prevent as well as to punish. But, when the libel is published, the offence is carried as far as it can be carried; and you may wait without any public inconvenience, until proper information enables you to proceed against the offender by the known regular process of law.

To bring in a bill for regulating warrants, would, indeed, be liable to those consequences which are so improperly charged on the resolution: the resolution keeps a prudent silence upon points, on which a law would make perhaps, an indiscreet declaration; for if the proposed statute should wholly condemn such warrants, it would take away the use of them

them in any exigence; if it admitted exceptions, it would put all to sea again; as it is impossible regularly to define, and clearly to ascertain, cases of necessity.

No general opinion is given by the compilers of this work on these arguments. So much, however, is certain, that nothing but the most serious attempt on the liberty of the subject, remediable by no other means, could make any person wish to see the house of commons very forward in voluntary declarations of law. And this much may be said in justice to the spirit of the present age, that no body of men, in any state, has given, at any time, a stronger proof of its moderation, and its regard to strict constitutional principles, than the house of commons did in this one session, upon two questions relating to its own jurisdiction; that of privilege, and this of general warrants.

The party for administration having carried an amendment to the resolution, which consisted in stating the constant and uncensured practice of office, an amendment calculated to exculpate the officers of state (even if the resolution should pass) the question so amended was put on a motion to adjourn to that day four months, that is, Feb. civilly to dismiss it. The adjournment was carried; 17th. which decided, for that time at least, a point of such prodigious expectation.

The minority, however, on this point was so very considerable, that administration may rather be said to have escaped than conquered. It seemed to shake their whole fabric to the very founda-

tions. But the progress of the session shewed that their formidable numbers were only mustered on this single point. On all others there was no great difficulty.

Even upon the most momentous part of all there was no opposition. The ministry had laid the scheme of supplies in such a manner, as to cut off one of the principal sources of popular clamour. Agreeably to the principles which they had laid down in the former session, in which they declared for the most sparing use of taxation, and from the experience concerning the taxes which they had ventured to propose in that session, in the present they opened no loan, they accepted no lottery; though it is well known, that in some respects these loans and lotteries afford no unpleasing opportunities to a minister of obliging his friends, and strengthening his connections.

A debt, contracted on account of the war still remained to be satisfied. This they proposed to discharge to the amount of 2,000,000*l*. They found also 1,800,000*l*. exchequer bills at such a discount, as to weigh down with them the whole building of the public credit.

As the bank contract was to be renewed, the treasury availed itself very prudently of so favourable a conjuncture, and stipulated that this body should take a million of these bills for two years at an interest reduced by one fourth, and, at the same time, should pay a fine on their renewal of one hundred thousand pounds. This they stated, and I believe it was so, as the most beneficial contract ever made with

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a corporation, whose vast money trade is carried on upon the credit of the government.

For the rest of the exchequer bills, they struck new ones. They brought to the service of the nation 700,000*l.* the produce of the French prizes taken before the declaration of war, and which the king generously bestowed upon the public. They also brought to account, what they stated had been so long unaccounted for, to the detriment of the service and the reproach of administration, the saving on the non-effective men; and this saving amounted to so great a sum as 140,000*l.*

With these resources, with the land tax now grown into a settled and permanent revenue of four shillings in the pound, with the tax upon malt, with two millions which they took from the sinking fund, being the overplus of that fund, joined to some other savings, they paid off the forementioned debt, and provided for the service of the ensuing year in all its establishments and contingencies, the whole amounting to 7,820,102*l.*

They justified their employment of the overplus of the sinking fund by the exigency of the time, by former precedents, but principally on the credit of having augmented it by near 400,000*l.* in the single article of tea, an immense quantity of which had been brought to pay duty by the wise measures taken for the prevention of smuggling, and the strict and vigilant collection of the revenue. The reader who is disposed to see a more exact and detailed state of this ministerial account will find

it under the usual head in our Register.

This state of supply, and of ways and means, was introduced to the house, and afterwards to the public, with no small parade and ostentation. Mar. 20th, 1764.

In the house it underwent no examination. But the party, who had been so silent on this weighty subject within doors, made full amends for their silence there by their criticisms without. Whatever the debaters wanted, was made up by the writers, who examined this ministerial account with great acuteness and severity.

They charged it with being frivolous in some instances, in others fallacious, and unsatisfactory in all. First, they denied that the debt which the ministry boasted to have discharged was, for the much greater part of it, at all paid, but only postponed to gain the triumph of a day to the present, and to lie as an heavy burthen, perhaps, upon some future administration.

Secondly, they disputed the merit which was claimed from having raised the supplies without any additional taxes. If a minister, said they, would acquire the merit of paying off the debt, it must be done either by improving the revenue, or by lessening the interest of the debt. The work of the present ministry has been, to raise the rate of interest, and to impair the sinking fund, instead of raising the sinking fund and lowering interest. The ministry here have only postponed the necessary provisions. They have left ten millions of out-standing debts, which, until it is funded, will

will infallibly depress all the other stocks; we see that it does so, as they are at this moment 15 per cent. below par, and this we call a tax upon all stock-holders. Ask the monied interest, whether the present ministry has laid any tax, and they will tell you that their property is worse by twenty millions, than it would be if ministers would do their duty; and if this is not a tax, let the minister give his definition of taxing.

Then go to the landed interest, and enquire what merit the ministry are to claim with them. Their merit is this; that they will not exert themselves to provide for the necessities of the state by a plan of distributing the burthen, and therefore have thrown the whole upon the shoulders of the landed men, rather than stir themselves to effectuate any plan, by which the landed gentlemen might have to pay no more than their respective proportions, according to their way of living; they have transferred the whole upon the land, which from henceforward can have no chance of paying less than four shillings in the pound.

There was no part upon which they fell more severely, than on the use which had been made of the sinking fund, and the credit which the ministry had assumed by augmenting the revenue in the article of tea. On this particular, we apprehend, they had the greatest success; for they shewed very clearly, that the increase of the customs could not be owing, as the ministerial pamphlets had asserted, to the increased duty upon that commodity, but had, for the greater part of it, arisen upon other

articles on which it was impossible for them to assume any particular merit.

It was also asserted, that after the several appropriations of the sinking fund were satisfied, there might be found a great deficiency even towards supplying the two millions which were charged on it for the ways and means of this year, which would be as an heavy burthen on the provisions of the next. Besides, they calculated the probable future produce of that fund; and from this calculation they affirmed the impossibility of its being made for any long time subservient to the plan which is now pursued; and that the unfunded debt could in no reasonable period be discharged by it, to say nothing of its application to its original purposes, which now seems to be wholly forgotten.

These charges on the ministry, made with art and boldness, and supported with an appearance of no mean skill in the finances, produced a great effect on the minds of the people, especially as the facts were not answered with any thing which bespoke either authority or information; nor were the consequences drawn from them at all obviated.

But it must be observed, that even in this charge, several points, and those important ones, upon which the ministry had valued itself, were not called into controversy. The application of the French prize money by the favour of the crown, at a time when there were, perhaps, other calls plausible and pressing enough to divert it another way; the beneficial contract with the bank, by which

which above one hundred thousand pounds was brought to the service of the year, the relief, at least temporary, procured to the public for a million of exchequer bills; and the saving on the non-effective men, amounting to so great a sum; those were matters of considerable merit; and we do not remember that they were even cavilled at.

Whether it were better, at that time, to have new taxes provided for the interest of the unfunded debt, is a question not at all easy to be decided; it had been disputed, without being at all determined, in the preceding year. As to the other capital objection, the estimated surplus of the sinking fund, time can only shew the grounds of the predictions concerning its failure, on which the impropriety of so large an application of it was alledged.

With regard to the charge of continuing the land tax at 4s. in the pound, it is altogether frivolous. Heavy as that burthen unquestionably is, nothing is more certain, than that no plan of administration did or could propose to carry on public business, in our present circumstances, without that assistance.

On the whole, the scheme of ways and means seems to have had a considerable share of merit, though perhaps set off with a little too much parade, and some ministerial artifice, in their situation, perhaps, not wholly inexcusable.

Once more we wish to remind the reader, that we do not mean to enter at large into this difficult question. It would oppress our narrative. We touch the heads just as far as may tend to shew, on what general grounds our several parties have contended.

In this manner the session passed over; and the ministry, to whose duration so short a date had been assigned, not only weathered the storms of the session, but seemed to gather new strength to contend with future tempests. They gathered at least no small degree of boldness from their success: for, immediately after they had been somewhat hardly pressed in the question of the general warrants, several officers, some of them of high rank and distinguished merit in the army, were dismissed from the service. This step (which was generally construed to be a punishment of these officers for their votes), if it may be supposed to intimidate the unsteady friends of the administration, gave great reason of clamour to their enemies; if it shewed the power of the ministry in one session, it may be a means of shaking it in another. The practice of dismissing military men for parliamentary conduct having always appeared, if not unjustifiable, at least extremely indiscreet. Nothing could be better calculated to raise an alarm for the freedom of parliament.

C H A P. VII.

Affairs in Indostan. Situation of Mir Jaffier. His territories invaded by a son of the mogul's, and the Marattas. Ill condition of his government. He is deposed; and Mir Cossim set up in his place. Character and designs of Mir Cossim. His disputes with the English. War undertaken against him. Mir Jaffier proclaimed.

THE affairs of India have been omitted for some time in our Register, on account of the imperfections, obscurity, and contradictions in the relations of them, which had been made public. Though they are not, in all respects, thoroughly cleared, yet enough has appeared in the course of this year, to engage us to resume them, and to treat of the events there as much at large as is consistent with our plan in conducting this history; in which we study to afford our readers as much information upon every subject of public concern as can be given, without too great an exercise of their patience. In reality, the splendid and lucrative advantages we have acquired in India; the greatness of the enterprizes, in which (whether wisely or not) we have engaged ourselves; the uncertainty of the final issue of those attempts; the debates, almost equal, in zeal and fervour, to those of national parties, which have arisen upon them; naturally render the affairs of our company there a most interesting object, and a matter of general and eager curiosity.

Since the year 1756, three capital revolutions have been effected in Bengal by our management. The company, which form a society of merchants has become ar-

biter of kingdoms, raises and deposes sovereigns by its clerks and warehouse-keepers; and the proprietors of India stock debate on the fate of princes and of nations, and dispose of them with all the loftiness and all the power of a Roman senate.

The reader will remember the deposition of Surajah Dowla, subah of Bengal, by the arms of Lord Clive in 1756, and the elevation of Mir Jaffier Aly Cawn, who attained to that tottering dignity by betraying and murdering his master. He was scarcely invested with it, when he found himself surrounded with difficulties and dangers. The kindred of the prince he had deposed looked upon him with an evil eye, and filled his mind with continual apprehensions. He had no confidence in the great men who surrounded him: he was, and not without reason, jealous and fearful even of the English power, which had wrought so great a revolution in his favour. His treasury had been exhausted, and his best revenues mortgaged, to satisfy the sums which he had stipulated as an indemnification and a reward to them. And the privileges which he was obliged to grant them in trade, to the detriment of his customs, took away the few resources he had left. His necessities
put

put him upon odious methods of raising money, which lost him the hearts of his subjects. These necessities continued notwithstanding these methods; and his troops, upon whom every thing depended, were ill disciplined, because not paid. This evil every day engendered on itself. Without the aid of the troops, the revenues could not be collected, no more than the troops could be paid without the revenues. The principal lords or rajas rebelled, and refused their accustomed tribute.

Thus surrounded at home by an army of mutineers and a court of conspirators, he was threatened from abroad with invasions from every quarter; from Shah Zada, a son of the mogul's who attempted to reduce him; and from the Marattas, a powerful and warlike nation, which has occasionally all the governments of India under contribution. In this situation, his mind, agitated and anxious, and filled with the bloody politics of his country, sought relief by murdering the objects of his jealousy, the family of his predecessor, and the most factious of his courtiers. He entered into various negotiations with the Indian powers, and, it is said, with the Dutch, in order to secure himself from the English. The poverty into which he was fallen obliged him to infringe several of the ruinous privileges, with which he had indulged the servants of the company; and thus he totally alienated the affections of those who were the disposers of his fate. To complete his misfortunes, his son, who alone of his children was arrived at maturity, and proved the

support of his tottering age and power, was killed by lightning.

A prevailing party in the council of Calcutta, observing the subah so extremely weakened, provoked at any opposition from one whom they considered as their creature, and, perhaps, hoping to advance their fortunes by new revolutions, formed a design of deposing Mir Jaffier from the throne, which he filled with so much uneasiness and incapacity.

The crimes, however, with which they charged him, were evidently not of their cognizance; the injuries they pretended to have suffered seemed light and trivial; and the existence of the conspiracies against the interest of the English was not very clearly established. Nothing advantageous could be rationally hoped from such a revolution to the general interests of the company. No successor could be more entirely subject to them, from his want of natural support or personal capacity. This last consideration was so strong, that some, who afterwards co-operated in his deposition, at first strenuously opposed it; and some persisted in censuring what seemed to them so bold and so unnecessary a measure, to the very last. Those, who had resolved to take the management of affairs out of the hands of Mir Jaffier, insisted that his incapacity was such, that whatever advantages they might expect from it, unless he was aided and even controlled by some person of ability, he must shortly be ruined himself, and, possibly, the interest of the company in Bengal might be ruined along with him.

On these principles a secret treaty was concluded Sept. 15th, 1760. with Mir Cossim Aly Cawn, son-in-law of Mir Jaffier, not, indeed, to place him upon the throne of his father, but to vest in him all the power of it, leaving only his title to the subah. Mir Cossim, in his turn, made no scruples; but readily stipulated every thing which could be asked by those, in whose power it was to give or withhold the whole object.

In consequence of this treaty, governor Vansittart and colonel Caillaud (the same who has performed such important services in India) marched under other pretences, to Murshudabad, the capital where the subah resided. They surrounded his palace, before he had any notice of their intentions; they demanded that he should dismiss his evil counsellors, and instantly vest the government in his son-in-law, threatening in case of refusal to storm his palace.

This unfortunate prince, betrayed by his family, and attacked by those to whom he owed his elevation, seemed at first determined to make some defence; but, on

Oct. 20th, 1760. their repeated threats, he ordered the gates to be opened, exclaiming, it is said, that he was betrayed; that the English were guilty of perjury and breach of faith; that he perceived their designs against his government; that he had friends enough to hazard at least one battle in his defence; but although no oaths were sacred enough to bind the English, yet as he had sworn to be their faithful friend, he would never swerve from his engagement, and rather

suffer death than draw his sword against them. He seemed to be so satisfied that avarice was the motive of this attempt, that he desired to know, what sum of money Mir Cossim was to give for the subahship, and he would give half as much more to be continued in it. He hoped, however, that, if they intended to dethrone him, they would not leave him to the mercy of his son-in-law, from whom he feared the worst, but rather wished they would carry him from Murshudabad, and give him a place of safety in Calcutta.

This request, which they chose to consider as a formal abdication, was instantly granted; and Mir Jaffier thinking justly, that there was a better security in the mildness of the European manners, than in the ties of nature in India, resided as a private man at Calcutta; enjoying probably, more happiness in this retreat, than in all the grandeur which he held for about four years with so many apprehensions, and attempted to secure, though in vain, by so many murders.

The successor, of a character altogether different from that of his father-in-law, bold, subtle, enterprising, of an extensive and commanding genius, felt his situation in all its degrading circumstances, and at once conceived the design of freeing himself from the chains of so dishonourable a dependence. He knew he was not served from friendship, and therefore, thought he owed no return of gratitude. But for a while it was necessary he should dissemble, and take all possible

possible advantage of the power of his allies, whilst it could be serviceable to him. By their assistance he cleared his government of invaders, and strengthened his frontiers. He defeated Shah Zada, with whom he afterwards entered into a treaty, probably much to his advantage, and very little, probably, to ours. Then, and by the same assistance, he reduced the rajas, or independent Indian chiefs, who had rebelled during the feeble administration of his predecessor; and, compelling them to the payment of their usual tribute, repaired his exhausted finances, and thereby secured the discipline and fidelity of his troops. Having thus brought his province to peace and obedience by the assistance of the English forces, but one thing remained to his perfect establishment; the securing himself from those very English. He complained, that he had been, even from his elevation to his new dignity, treated with so much of every kind of insolence, that it seemed as if his power had been conferred upon him, merely to debase both his person and authority. This treatment confirmed him in his resolution of asserting his independency, even as a necessary means of his repose as well as of his honour.

His first step was to remove from Murshudabad. The
1761. vicinity of this city to Calcutta gave the English factory an opportunity of a continual and vigilant inspection of his actions; and an opportunity, whenever they thought fit, of interrupting him in his designs. He took up his residence at a place

called Mongheer, two hundred miles higher up the Ganges. This place he fortified as expeditiously and strongly as he could.

Here he began to form his army on a new model. He drew together all the Persians, Tartars, Armenians, and other soldiers of fortune, whose military character he thought might inspirit his Indian forces, and teach them to overcome their natural timidity. Sensible likewise of the superiority of the European discipline, he neglected nothing to acquire it. Every wandering European who had borne arms, all the seapoys who had been dismissed from the English service, he carefully collected and distributed among his troops, to form them to our exercise. He changed the fashion of the Indian musquets from matchlocks to firelocks. And because their cannon was nearly as defective as their small arms, he procured a pattern of one from the English, on which he formed an excellent train of artillery. Attentive to his army, he was not forgetful of his court, the treachery and factious dissensions of which had hitherto been more fatal to the Indian princes than the inefficiency of their arms. He therefore cut off or threw into prison every considerable person in his dominions, who had shewn any attachment to the English.

When he had thus strengthened himself by every measure which a wise and able man, unchecked by conscience, could take, he began to exert that authority which he thought he had so well established, and to which he had so just a right. Although his reve-

nue was on a much better footing than that of his predecessor, yet still it fell very short of its ancient limits. That free trade, which had been indulged by the exigencies of Mir Jaffier, and was so much increased by his own, threatened to annihilate his customs, whilst it drew all the interior as well as foreign commerce of Bengal from his own subjects, and its natural channels. He, therefore, began every where to subject the English private traders to the regular and equal payment of duties throughout his dominions, and directed that their disputes, if beyond their own limits, should be decided by his magistrates.

This step alarmed the factory. Nov. The governor himself, Mr. 1762. Vansittart, went to Mongheer, to expostulate with him upon it. The subah answered his remonstrances with great force of reason, and great command of temper. "If, said he, " the servants of the English company were permitted to trade " in all parts, and in all commodities, custom free, as many of " them now pretend, they must, " of course, draw all the trade " into their own hands, and my " customs would be of so little value, that it would be much more " for my interest to lay trade entirely open, and collect no customs from any person whatsoever upon any kind of merchandize. This would draw a " number of merchants into the " country, and increase my revenues, by encouraging the cultivation and manufacture of a " large quantity of goods for sale,

" at the same time that it would " effectually cut off the principal " subject of disputes which had " disturbed the good understanding between us, an object I have " more than any other at heart."

No reply could be made to this. The matter was evidently in his power, and he had a full right to do it: but the procedure tended evidently to destroy the private trade carried on by the gentlemen of the factory, and even to prejudice, as they said, that of the company itself. Though long used to dictate on all such occasions, the governor found the new nabob so intelligent and so firm, that he thought proper to submit to regulations, by which the privileges of the English were put under several, perhaps not unreasonable, but certainly very unpleasing restrictions. These regulations were instantly put in execution; and the Indian magistrates began to exercise their power with a proper spirit, as they asserted, but, as our people complained, with partiality and rigour.

As soon as the effect of this negotiation at Mongheer was known at Calcutta, the factory was immediately in a flame. They were filled with astonishment and indignation at finding, that an Asiatic prince of their own creation, had dared to be a sovereign. They began to repent of their late change, and to wish that they had left the timid and indolent Mir Jaffier to slumber quietly on his throne. The council of Calcutta disavowed their governor, and refused to abide by his treaty.

Jan. 17th,
1763.

They

They affirmed that he assumed a right to which he was no ways authorized; that the regulations proposed by him were dishonourable to them as Englishmen, and tended to the ruin of all public and private trade; and that the president's issuing out of regulations, independently of the council, was an absolute breach of their privileges. They sent orders to all the factories, that no part of the agreement between the governor and the subah should be submitted to.

Disputes arose amongst them;

every thing was at once thrown into confusion, and commerce interrupted in every part. They applied again to Mir Cossim, to enter into a new agreement. But now grown confident of his strength, with many accusations of their inconstancy and insolence, he haughtily refused to negotiate with their deputies; the English factory, yielding in nothing to his spirit, prepared to draw their army into the field, and once more proclaimed Mir Jaffier subah of Bengal.

Beginning
of July,
1763.

C H A P. VIII.

English surprise Patna. Driven out and defeated. Major Adams takes the field. Action at Ballasara. Battle of Nuncas Nullas. Siege of Auda Nulla. Great slaughter of the Indians. Mongbeer reduced. Massacre of the English prisoners at Patna. Patna taken. Mir Cossim flies out of Bengal.

IN this war the first blow was struck by the English. Patna is a city of great extent and considerable trade on the Ganges, about 300 miles above Calcutta. There the English East India company have a fortified factory, and some European as well as Indian soldiers. Whether in consequence of orders from the superior council at Calcutta, or from some separate design, or from some offence or provocation given or understood, we have no information, this factory on a sudden June 25, 1763. attacked and carried that great city, notwithstanding its fortifications had been newly repaired, and that it was defended by a strong garrison. On

the first attack, the governor and garrison fled, and some slaughter ensued. On the taking of this place with so little resistance, the conquerors neglected all precautions; they fell loosely and greedily on their prey, and dispersed themselves on every side, wasting and plundering this opulent and feeble city.

The Indian governor, as soon as he had recovered from his fright, perceived the error of his enemies; and resolved to avail himself of their disorder. Reinforced in the country, he returned to Patna four hours after he had left it. The place was retaken with as little resistance as it had been lost. The English, wildly dispersed about

the city, were all either cut to pieces, or obliged to seek refuge in their fort.

Such was the sudden change in their affairs and spirits, that the factory, which a few hours before was not afraid or unable to storm the city, were not now in a condition to defend their fort. They took the resolution of abandoning it, and retreating into the territories of a neighbouring nabob. They accordingly crossed the Ganges, and met with no obstruction during the first three days of their march; but they were at length overtaken, attacked by a superior force, and, after two engagements, in the first of which they had the advantage, were entirely routed.

It appears (from what information we possess) that, without considering the reason or equity of the thing, the attack of Patna by our factory there was not a design very prudently conceived. In the heart of the enemy's country, near the very center of his strength interposed directly between them and their friends, in no great numbers, at a vast distance from all succour, no offensive operation could be expected from them. But if they had contented themselves with acting on the defensive, from the inexpertness of the Indians in the art of reducing strong places, they might have maintained themselves for a long time in their factory.

The deputies, who had been sent to Mongheer, were attacked in their return home, and miserably slaughtered with their at-

tendants, though they had been furnished with the nabob's pass, which ought to have protected them. This act of treacherous hostility hastened the preparations of our army, which immediately took the field under major Adams. It consisted, at first, of no more than one regiment of the king's forces; a few of the company's; two troops of European cavalry; ten companies of seapoys; and twelve pieces of cannon.

They very soon came to action, and having the advantage in two brisk skirmishes, they cleared the country to the Cossimbuzar river, a considerable branch of the Ganges, which it was necessary they should pass, before they could master Murshudabad, the capital of the province. The enemy made no opposition to their passing of the river; but had drawn out their army, consisting of 10,000 men, in an advantageous post on the other side, between the river and the city. The place was called Ballasara. The Indians, on some judicious motions of major Adams, were obliged to begin the engagement, which they did with great resolution, and bore the cannonade with great firmness, until they arrived within fifty yards, when they received such a storm of musquetry, as obliged them to retire with precipitation. This advantage was soon followed by a complete victory.

Great activity, which in every scene of military operations is of such moment, was here much more necessary than on common occasions,

sions. The rains began to fall heavily, and the service was severe. No time was therefore lost. Major Adams proceeded directly to Murshudabad; but he found the enemy again in his way. They were well posted; their intrenchments were fifteen feet high, and defended with a numerous artillery.

It would have been an unjustifiable boldness to think of gaining such a post in the face of the enemy. It was however necessary to gain it by some method. A stratagem was laid, and succeeded. The English

July 23d. commander made a feint with a small body of troops against that part where the enemy had collected their strength. Whilst they were amused with this appearance, the whole army was marched in the night; and at day-break, the Indians found them at the opposite quarter of their intrenchments, where they had but a slight guard. Astonished with this stroke, they fled, and abandoned the intrenchments, and the city, which they covered, to the conqueror.

This great advantage did not slacken the diligence of the English. They penetrated into the heart of the province, and sought the subah in the utmost recesses of Bengal, across the numerous and wide branches of the Ganges; through marshes and forests.

Mir Cossim, on his side, was not remiss in his defence. He observed two maxims well adapted to the quality of his troops, and to the slight attachment of Indian subjects to their sovereign. For he did not act as the eastern princes have too often done, who commit the whole

issue of the war to a single battle, to which they draw the whole strength of their dominions, and in which their raw troops confounded the veterans, and the bad disordered the good. But, as we have seen, he distributed his forces, and defended his dominions post by post. His second maxim was, not to hazard his own person in any engagement. Faithful subjects are always animated by the presence of their king. But, situated as he was, another event was to be expected, if he should put himself at the head of his troops. He therefore constantly declined it. He knew that his officers, conscious that they could make no merit of their treachery by being able to deliver up their prince, and that their conduct in one engagement could neither settle his fortune or their own, would fight with much more steadiness and resolution.

His conduct was formed upon wise principles, but his army had not yet time to be completed in discipline. The English were in the full career of victory, and nothing could stand before them. But they found a sensible difference in the opposition made to their arms, though it was not able fully to obstruct their progress.

When they met the principal force of the Indian army on the banks of a river call-

ed Nunas Nullas, they Aug. 2d. found their post chosen

with great judgment; they found a body, which, in a manner, reflected their own; divided into regular brigades, with a good train of artillery well served; the same arms, the same accoutrements, and

and the same clothing with their own. What was more striking, they found much of their own order and spirit. What was never before observed in India, the enemy did not begin their cannonade until the English had begun their attack, and thus maintained their ground in an obstinate dispute of four hours constant firing. Their cavalry also charged the regular European troops at twenty yards distance with uncommon resolution. But, though their discipline and spirit were so greatly superior to any thing which had been known before in that part of the world; and though they consisted of 20,000 horse, and 8,000 foot; the English were in the end superior. The Indians were obliged to quit the field, and abandon all their cannon.

After this decisive proof of the superiority of our forces, they never attempted a regular engagement in the open field, during the whole campaign. But they shewed neither want of discipline nor want of skill in pursuing other measures. A post, called Auda Nulla, by nature very strong, they had fortified with as much care as if it had been the weakest. In front it had a considerable swamp; it was protected on one side by the mountains; on the other by the river Ganges. Here they threw up a great work, and mounted an hundred pieces of cannon; having in their front a deep ditch fifty-four feet wide, and full of water in every part except that which lay towards the mountains. The breadth of dry ground, which the English had for carrying on their approaches, did not exceed two hundred yards,

and lay between the swamp and the river.

This was a post rather for a siege than for an attack. The efforts against it were, therefore, the operations of a siege. They were continued with great diligence, but without any decisive effect, from the 21st of August to the 4th of September, when the commander, tired out with this slow and uncertain procedure, resolved to change his measures.

The enemy's whole attention had been diverted to the river, on the side of which the principal attempts of the English had been all along made. They were quite negligent on the side of the mountain; secure from the remoteness of the grand attack of the English, and the great natural strength of their post on this quarter.

On this quarter, therefore, major Adams resolved to make an attempt. After having disposed every thing for an attempt of such importance with great judgment, he detached major Irwin with a chosen body of Europeans, and the best seapoys or Indian soldiers in the army, the whole amounting to about 2000 men, to attack that part before day-break, being prepared to follow and support them with the whole line.

This service was ably and resolutely performed. The intrenchments were carried; a general confusion and an incredible slaughter of the enemy ensued. As many perished by drowning as by the sword. The rout of the Indians was total.

On this defeat they abandoned a vast tract; and though they had several other very defensible posts one behind another, they made a stand

stand at none of them, but laid open the whole country to the victorious arms of the English to the gates of Mongheer, which the nabob had made the place of his residence, and the center of his military arrangements. The place, about which he had taken such pains, was surrendered to them after only nine days open trenches. Two thousand men marched out of the fort.

Nothing now remained to the compleat reduction of this province, but Patna. This was the last hope of Mir Cossim. Accordingly he omitted nothing to strengthen and secure it. He placed in the city a garrison of 10,000 men, and hovered at some distance with several large bodies of horse to annoy the besiegers. But this unfortunate barbarian had merited by his cruelties the ill success which had constantly attended all his measures, which, in themselves, were far from being ill taken.

The prisoners which he had made at Patna, amounted to near two hundred English. Irritated at the progress of our arms, and unable to avenge himself in the field, he issued orders for murdering them. One Somers, a German, a deserter from the company's service, was the perpetrator of this execrable villainy. He had invited above forty officers and other gentlemen in the company's service, who were among these unfortunate persons, to sup with him on the day he had fixed for their execution; and when his guests were in full security, protected, they imagined, by the laws of hospitality, as well

as by the right of prisoners, he ordered the Indians under his command to fall upon them and cut their throats.

Even these barbarous soldiers revolted at the orders of this savage European. They refused at first to obey; desired that arms should be given to the English, and that they would then engage them. Somers, fixed in his villainy, compelled them with threats and blows to the accomplishment of that odious service. The unfortunate victims, though thus suddenly attacked and wholly unarmed, made a long and brave defence; and with their plates and bottles even killed some of their assailants, but in the end they were all slaughtered. The rest of the prisoners of every rank met with the same fate.

But it was not long unrevengeed. Major Adams marched with the body of his army without delay from Mongheer to Patna. The detail of the operations of a siege are entertaining and instructive to but a very few readers. The enemy in this siege, as in all the operations of the campaign, conducted themselves with a military ability hitherto unusual with them. They made sallies with vigour and spirit; and in one of them blew up a principal magazine. This advantage acquired them some credit, but was not sufficient to save the place, which was not fortified with any regularity, and seems not to have had any outworks. The English batteries soon destroyed their defences, silenced their cannon, and made a practicable breach.

In

Nov. 6th. In eight days this important city was taken by storm.

The nabob had now lost all his places. His army was reduced to a small body. He was obliged to fly for refuge to Sujah Doula, subah of a neighbouring province, who had great power, and acted as grand vizir to the mogul. He received this fugitive prince into his territories, but afforded him only an asylum for his person. He refused to admit his army, not willing to render his own province the seat of a war, which had been so unfortunate to his neighbour.

No campaign had ever been conducted with more ability; no plan better laid or more systematically followed; no operations more rapid. In less than four months, major Adams completed, for the first time of any European, the entire conquest of the kingdom of Bengal. He fought in that time four capital actions with the enemy; forced the strongest intrenchments; took two considerable fortified places; near 500 pieces of cannon; and prevailed over the most provoked, resolute, cautious, and subtle enemy we ever had in India. Whether the motives for beginning the war do us any great honour, may be a question; but the prosecu-

tion and the conclusion of it have acquired great glory to our arms. How affairs in India will be like finally to settle, and what use we may be able to make of those great advantages we have obtained, it will be impossible even to guess at, until the accounts of next year.

As to the savage war in America, without being entirely extinguished, its fury is much abated. The American Indians, unassisted by any European power, have no resources sufficient to support an uniform and long continued system of hostility. Sir William Johnson, of whose faithful services since the beginning of the troubles in that part of the world too much can scarcely be said, concluded a treaty early in the Apr. 3d, 1764. year with the Senecas,

one of the revolted tribes of the Iroquois; which having drawn one of the most considerable succours from those who still persevered in their enmity to us, the confederated tribes between lake Erie and the Ohio have since thought Sept. and proper to submit, tho' Oct. 1764. not till they saw a body of troops under the command of colonel Bradstreet, advancing towards their country from Niagara, and another from Philadelphia, under colonel Bouquet, in the very heart of it.

CHRONICLE.

JANUARY.

1st. **T**HERE was a great court at St. James's, to compliment their majesties on the new year, as usual, but no ode; an omission, which, as there was no apparent reason for it, occasioned some surprise, considering how religiously that custom used to be observed in times when there were neither the same materials for panegyric, nor the same genius to work them up. As to the ancient custom of public hazard playing at court on twelfth night, it now seems to be entirely laid aside.

4th. A comet was discovered by M. de Haan, at Harlem, in the constellation of the Dragon, about 30 deg. from the Arctic Pole. It was as large as a star of the third magnitude, but its tail, which was about 20 min. was very feeble. Next day it was observed at Tewksbury, Gloucestershire, near two small stars in the hand of Bootes.

12th. His most serene highness the hereditary prince of Brunswick Lunenburg landed at Harwich from on board his majesty's yacht the princess Augusta; and on the evening of the next day arrived at Somerset-house, in the king's equipages, attended by several noblemen who went to wait his arrival at Harwich.

The next morning his serene highness waited on their majesties, and the rest of the royal family; and on the 16th at seven in the evening the ceremony of the marriage of her royal highness the princess Augusta with his most serene highness was performed in the great council chamber by his grace the archbishop of Canterbury. None but peers and peeresses, peers eldest sons and peers daughters, privy counsellors and their wives, and foreign ministers, were admitted to be present at the ceremony. Their serene and royal highnesses remained at St. James's, till nine, and then repaired to Leicester house, where a grand supper was prepared; at which were present their majesties, the princess dowager, princes William and Henry, and the rest of the royal family. Their majesties went away about twelve.

The next day their majesties, her royal highness the princess dowager of Wales, and their royal and serene highnesses the prince and princess of Brunswick, received the compliments of the nobility and gentry, which were followed by most dutiful and affectionate addresses from both houses of parliament and the city of London.

On the 26th, at three in the afternoon, their highnesses set out for Harwich, loaded with presents from

from their majesties, and the rest of the royal family, and attended by the tears of many and the good wishes of all, which the prince returned by his prayers for the success of this nation, for which, he said, he had already bled, and would again, with pleasure, on any future occasion. The princess, in a German travelling habit, and attended by lady Susan Stuart and two noblemen, went in one coach, and the prince, with some of the noblemen of his court, followed in another. The princes William and Henry Frederick, and two noblemen, went next in post chaises and four attended by many servants on horseback, but no guards. By eight, they arrived at the seat of lord Abercorn, at Witham in Essex, where a grand entertainment was provided for their highnesses, and they were met by many of the nobility of both sexes, who had set out before to spend the evening with their highnesses.

On the 27th their highnesses set out for Mistle-hall, and from thence, the next day, arrived at Harwich, where the corporation waited upon them with their compliments of congratulation, and had the honour of kissing the princess's hand.

On the 29th they embarked in different yachts, and sailed the 30th, but did not reach Helvoetsluys till the 2d of February, having been overtaken by very bad weather, in which there was the greatest reason to fear their highnesses had perished, as it was several days before any certain and agreeable account of them reached London.

His serene highness, during his

stay in London, was sumptuously entertained by his royal highness the duke of Cumberland, and many of the principal nobility and gentry, visited every place worth the attention of a traveller, confirming all ranks in those sentiments of love and esteem which his behaviour in the British army in Germany had already so justly inspired. But no part of his highness's behaviour seemed to give so much pleasure as his paying a visit, in a free and friendly manner worthy of himself, to Mr. Pitt, then confined by the gout at his country seat.

Their highnesses, at their setting out, were pleased to order 500l. each for the relief of poor prisoners for debt.

The master of a circulating library was tried for 14th. selling a spurious pamphlet, called an *Essay on Woman*, for that said to be printed for Mr. W. when a verdict was given against the defendant, who was ordered to pay costs and return the purchase money.

In the morning a violent storm blew from W. S. W. which did great damage throughout these kingdoms. During the storm two dreadful fires broke out, one near Hyde Park corner, and another in Ratcliff Highway; but they were both happily extinguished, after consuming seven or eight houses each; a small number considering how fiercely they burned, and how fast they spread, the roofs of the houses being all in a flame, before any of the floors were damaged.

Last week the driver of a stage machine going to Newbury fell dead from his box within three miles

miles of that place, but was not missed by the passengers till after their arrival, the horses having brought them to their inn without any stop or accident; a remarkable instance of the great sagacity and tractableness of that noble animal.

17th. Ended the sessions at the Old Bailey, when nine malefactors received sentence of death; viz. five for burglary; one for forgery; one for a footpad robbery; and two women for privately stealing; but, except two for burglary, and the criminal for forgery, they were afterwards pardoned, on condition of transportation. Thirty-six were sentenced to be transported for seven years, one for fourteen years: two were branded, and one was whipped.

18th. A surprizing meteor was observed at St. Neot's, 36 min. after five in the evening; its appearance was a pale red, in contact with a condensed cloud, and in 1 min. 34 sec. formed a semicircle opposite the moon, and by the refraction of its rays was a bright rainbow, a thing rarely, if ever, observed after sun-set.

At the adjourned sessions of the peace for the city of London, at Guildhall, the court was pleased to order, that journeymen taylors shall be allowed 2s. 7d. half-penny per day the whole year, and their hours of working to be from six in the morning to eight at night: but in case of the earl marshal's order for a general mourning, they are to be allowed five shillings per day for a limited time.

25th. His majesty went to the house of peers, and gave the royal assent to

The bill for naturalizing his

serene highness the prince of Brunswick.

The bill for punishing mutiny and desertion.

And to some private bills.

At a general court of the governors of the bank, it appeared, that they had obtained a renewal of their charter, which was almost expired, for 21 years, from 1765, on consideration of their paying toward the supplies 110,000l. and lending the government a million on exchequer bills, to the year 1766, at 3 per cent. and then to be paid off.

There was observed at St. Neot's, 42 minutes after six 31st. o'clock in the evening, 6 min. to the east of Rigel, a star of the first magnitude in the left foot of Orion, and in eight deg. 29 min. 24 sec. south declination, a globe of fire; its apparent diameter was about two-thirds of the moon's, with a long tail of five times its diameter. As the moon was not above the horizon, and the sky very clear, it appeared very luminous, and enlightened the whole atmosphere, which reflected the rays of light as if the sun had been above the horizon. This phenomenon moved with great velocity, for it was near the top of the terrestrial atmosphere, which perhaps was raised to a pyramid, 15 or 16 miles higher than when the balance is in equilibrio, caused by the pressure of the atmosphere on the nadir; in its motion, it crossed the meridian inclining to the west, in an angle of 15 degrees; it was about 39 sec. falling to the earth.

The following extract from a letter of Mr. Bart. Rocque of Walham-Green, dated the 6th of last month, cannot fail of giving great

great pleasure to all those who are zealous for the happiness of mankind, and these countries in particular, and know how much that happiness is promoted by every improvement in agriculture.

“ ’Tis true I have forty acres of land, but have but about ten in lucern. As to what they say of my making thirty-five pounds per acre, I will tell you how that was.

I sowed the first, second, third, and fourth mowings at a shilling per rod, which came to thirty-two pounds per acre: Then I mowed it a fifth time, so suppose they computed the fifth to come to three pounds, which certainly made thirty-five pounds, which it did. But I don't approve mowing it so often; for it bleeds it too much, and gives too much air to the natural grass the ground is inclined to bear.

If your soil is very good, you can make seven or eight loads per acre.”

In consideration of this surprising improvement, the society of arts soon after adjudged Mr. Rocque a bounty of fifty guineas; and we hope they will soon have occasion to grant more bounties of the like kind to others, in proportion as the practice recommended by the ingenious Mr. Stillingfleet, and enforced by the offer of premiums on the part of the society, of cultivating grasses, apart, in the soils, and after the manner, most agreeable to their respective natures, extends itself.

In the course of this month there fell such heavy rains in these kingdoms, in Germany, Holland, Flanders, and the northern provinces of France, that most of their low lands were overflowed by

the breaking of banks and rising of rivers, &c. and vast numbers of cattle were drowned, or perished for want of fodder. Many people likewise lost their lives. In some places, even where no banks had been destroyed, the waters remained till the year was far advanced,

Edinburgh, January 25. At a meeting of our presbytery this day, upon a motion made by a member that a paragraph in the London news-papers, dated Thursday, Jan. 12, to Saturday, Jan. 14, should be read; it was read accordingly, and is as follows; “ They write from Edinburgh, that since the 24th of September last 29 couples, from different parts of England have been married in that city, according to the church of Scotland.” The presbytery of Edinburgh think it their duty, in justification of themselves, and the rest of their brethren of the established church of Scotland, to say and declare, that not one of these marriages, nor any marriage of that kind, has been performed by any minister of this presbytery, nor, so far as they know, by any minister of this established church. What forms the celebrators of such marriages have observed, whether those of the church of England, or of the church of Scotland, this presbytery knows not.

Paris, Jan. 15th. The duke of Fitz James's affair is just settled to his honour, after three meetings of the dukes and peers at the palace-royal, in which there were warm debates. The chief subject of these debates was, whether the parliament of Tholouse had a power to take him into custody. The prince

prince of Conti spoke a full hour, with great eloquence, in favour of Fitz-James, but was answered by the duke of Orleans, and the prince of Condé, who both vindicated the parliament of Thoulouse; who, on the whole, have no reason to be displeased with the arret on this subject, since it confirms their rights and privileges, and thereby those of all the other parliaments, who are, thereupon, beginning to enter on the exercise of their functions; so that the disorders occasioned by the two edicts, and the declaration of April last, must soon give place to order, concord, and tranquillity.

The joy occasioned by this prospect of peace is not a little heightened by that of plenty, the king having issued an edict for the free commerce of grain; in consequence of which, it is to be hoped we shall no longer see our best lands lying fallow in the most favourable seasons; or our poor perishing for want of bread in one part of the kingdom, whilst the corn is rotting in the granaries of another.

The inhabitants of Sta. Lucia have discovered an animal flower. In a cavern of that isle, near the sea, is a large basin, from twelve to fifteen feet deep, the water of which is very brackish, and the bottom composed of rocks, from whence at all-times proceed certain substances, which present at first sight beautiful flowers, of a bright shining colour, and pretty nearly resembling our single marigolds; only that their tint is more lively. These seeming flowers, on the approach of a hand or instrument, retire, like a snail, out of sight. On examining this substance closely, there appears in

the middle of the disk four brown filaments, resembling spiders legs, which move round a kind of yellow petals, with a pretty brisk and spontaneous motion. These legs re-unite like pincers to seize their prey; and the yellow petals immediately close to shut up that prey, so that it cannot escape. Under this appearance of a flower is a brown stalk of the bigness of a raven's quill, and which appears to be the body of some animal. It is probable that this strange animal lives on the spawn of fish, and the small insects which the sea throws up into the basin.

Mrs. Jordan, of Southwark, was lately delivered of three boys.

Died lately, The celebrated Dr. King, principal of St. Mary-hall, Oxford.

Mary Blasgrave, at Oxford, aged 106. She lived a widow 85 years.

Mr. Lane, of Norton, Gloucestershire, aged 107.

F E B R U A R Y.

Mr. Blake, to whose laudable endeavours, under the 1st. patronage of the society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, to supply the markets of this great city with fish by land carriage, the public is so much indebted, was this day almost unanimously released from his obligation of 1,500l. advanced to him by that society, on his pledged security, over and above the 2,000l. consigned to his discretionary use in that undertaking. And, soon after, the parliament, thoroughly convinced of the great usefulness of this scheme, and his great

zeal and abilities to establish it, were pleased to allow him 2,500 l. for that purpose. The above society has disbursed very near 20,000 l. in this manner since its first establishment in the year 1755, and has above 3000 l. still remaining.

6th. India stock fell 14 per cent. and great debates arose among the stockholders, on the arrival of the Lapwing packet from the East Indies, with the account of the war's breaking out there with such unpromising circumstances. The reader will find some account of these debates in the Appendix to the Chronicle.

12th. The tide in the river Severn, which always comes up with a great head, and an amazing rapidity and noise, came half an hour before its usual time. This greatly astonished the people who observed it; but their surprise was heightened, when they perceived a second tide coming up, with equal force, within half an hour of the first.—At Bristol the tide flowed an hour and three quarters before its time; ceased to flow, and flowed again.

14th. The crew of his majesty's ship Pembroke chaired in grand procession, music playing and colours flying, their late boat-swain through the streets of Portsmouth and Gosport, and then made him a present of a gold call and a silver cup, in gratitude for his kind behaviour to them during the late war.

15th. The honourable house of commons sat till between seven and eight o'clock in the morning, on the affair of Mr. Wilkes, as author of the North Briton. The speaker was twenty hours in the chair, which was the

longest sitting, by three hours, that is remembered to have happened.

Came on at the court of king's bench, Westminster, 21st. before Lord chief Justice Mansfield, the trial of John Wilkes, esq; for reprinting and publishing the North Briton, No 45. at his own house. The council for the crown were, Mr. Attorney general, Mr. Morton, Mr. Clayton, and Mr. Wallis; and for the defendant, Mr. Serjeant Glynn, Mr. recorder Eyre, Mr. Stowe, Mr. Dunning, and Mr. Gardener.

Sir Fletcher Norton, attorney general, observing, that certain inflammatory papers had been sent to the gentlemen of the jury, in favour of the defendant, tending to bias and prejudice their minds, Lord Mansfield made some remarks on the heinous nature of such a proceeding, if true; and declared, if the offending party could be discovered, he should be punished in the most exemplary manner. A question being then put to the jury relative to the above papers, the foreman acknowledged the fact; but at the same time another of the jurymen produced a paper on the other side, which he observed was equally inflammatory. The trial lasted eight hours; the jury retired for an hour and three quarters, and brought in their verdict Guilty.

The court then proceeded to the trial of Mr. Wilkes for printing and publishing the Essay on woman (the same gentlemen as before being council on each side) of which also the jury, after withdrawing about half an hour, found him guilty.

At a court of common council held at Guildhall, the thanks of

of the court were ordered to be presented to the representatives of the city, for their zealous and spirited endeavours to assert the rights and liberties of the subject, *by their laudable attempt to obtain a seasonable and parliamentary declaration, That a general warrant for apprehending and seizing the authors, printers, and publishers of a seditious libel, together with their papers, is not warranted by law*; and to exhort them in the warmest manner steadily to persevere in their duty to the crown, and to use their utmost endeavours to secure the houses, papers, and persons of the subject from arbitrary and illegal violations. At the same time, resolved, that, "as the independency and "uprightness of judges is essential to the impartial administration of justice, and one of "the best securities to the rights "and liberties of the subject," this court, in manifestation of the just sense of the inflexible firmness and integrity of the right honourable Sir Charles Pratt, lord chief justice of his majesty's court of common pleas, doth direct, that the freedom of this city be presented to his lordship, and that he be desired to sit for his picture, to be placed in Guildhall, in gratitude for his honest and deliberate decision upon the validity of a warrant which had been frequently produced to, but, so far as appears to this court, never debated in the court of king's bench; by which he hath eminently distinguished his duty to the king, his justice to the subject, and his knowledge of the law.

This example of the city of Lon-

don, in thanking and instructing their representatives in regard to general warrants, and thanking lord chief justice Pratt, and presenting him with his freedom, has been followed by a great many corporations and private companies in England; as that of thanking his Lordship, and presenting him with his freedom, was first shewn by that of Dublin, and some companies in Ireland.

A treatise entitled *Droit le Roy*, a rhapsody of all the prerogatives at any time attributed to the kings of England, was burnt by the common hangman, at Westminster-hall gate, and on the 27th at the Royal Exchange, pursuant to an order of both houses of Parliament. The author himself narrowly escaped.

The sessions ended at the Old Bailey, when five malefactors received sentence of death; two for street-robberies; one for burglary; a woman for privately robbing a man; and a man for robbing a woman near Newington. This last has since been reprieved.

At this session John Franklin was tried for assaulting and wounding the honourable Thomas Harley, Esq; in the execution of his office, at the time when the North Briton, N^o 45, was burnt at the Royal Exchange, and was convicted thereof; but, notwithstanding the heinousness of the offence, he was, at Mr. Harley's intercession, only sentenced to three months imprisonment, to pay a fine of 6 s. 8 d. and give security for his good behaviour for one year.

Came on at Guildhall, before the right honourable the lord chief justice Pratt, an

action brought by Mr. Arthur Beardmore against the king's messengers, for entering his house, and inspecting *his and his clients books and papers*; when, upon the opening the cause, Mr. attorney general observed, that another action was depending, which Mr. Beardmore had brought, for false imprisonment, against the said messengers, jointly with the right honourable the Earl of Halifax, under the same warrant. Upon this it was proposed that both actions might be tried upon one record; on which Mr. Beardmore and his council immediately expressed their desire to unite both actions, and the court recommended to have the said earl joined as a party, that the whole merits against all parties charged or concerned might be tried in one action; and Mr. attorney general promising to recommend the same, thereupon his lordship appointed to try the cause on Friday the 4th day of May next.

The court of directors of the East India Company have made colonel Coote a present of a diamond hilted sword, which cost 700l. as a testimony of their gratitude for the services he had done the company in the East Indies, and a memorial of his courage and conduct in the conquest and demolition of the famous French settlement of Pondicherry.

At Ashton, in Gloucestershire, a large tract of land, of near 16 acres, split lately from that side of Breedon-hill in the parish of Grafton, and has entirely covered several pasture grounds, and a considerable space of the common field, at the bottom of the hill. Some stiles, that were in

the foot-way to Ashton, and are left standing, are now seventy paces distant from the paths to which they belonged. The ground, that has thus quitted its natural position, has preserved its own surface almost entire, except in a few places, where chasms several feet deep appear. The tops of trees twenty feet high, which grew at the lower part of the hill, are now scarcely two feet above ground; from whence it is thought the moving earth was near twenty feet in depth. This very extraordinary accident is attributed to the incessant rains, as the soil, now uppermost, is of a boggy nature.

A gentleman, who has been at considerable pains and travel, and who is reckoned a judge of the quality of stones and fossils, has presented to the members of the royal society, and to the society for the encouragement of arts, &c. a collection of Scotch garnets and other stones, found in the Highlands of Scotland, some of which have been cut by a lapidary in the diamond way, and are as beautiful as a ruby, equal in colour and weight to any oriental stone, bear the fire, retain their colour, and are reckoned great curiosities.

Their royal and most serene highnesses the hereditary prince and princess of Brunswick, on their landing at Helvoetsluys on the 2d instant, were complimented by the great cup-bearer, Bigot, on the part of the prince of Orange; by M. de Reden, charged by the king of Great Britain and the regency of Hanover to conduct them to Lunebourg; and M. de Boilwitz, on the part of the duke of Brunswick. The next day,

day, the hereditary prince took the route by land, and arrived towards evening at the Hague. Her royal highness embarked at the same time on board the yachts of the prince of Orange, and of the admiralty, and having a fair wind, arrived the same evening at Delftshaven, and the next morning at Delft, where the hereditary prince and duke Lewis of Brunswick, as well as the English ambassador, came to meet her. The equipage of the prince stadtholder, with an escort of body guards, conducted her royal highness from Delft to the Hague, to the palace of the prince stadtholder, called the Old Court, where, on alighting from her coach, she was received by the prince stadtholder, who handed her to her apartments, where her royal highness received, some time after, the compliments of the foreign ministers, and a great number of persons of distinction.

The states general, the states of Holland, and the council of state, upon news of their highnesses arrival, nominated a deputation of their most distinguished members, to compliment them upon their safe arrival, and the happy conclusion of their marriage; but, as they were pleased to decline receiving these deputations in form, all the colleges had the honour to make their compliments without ceremony.

The prince stadtholder gave the same day a grand dinner and supper, at the said palace, to their royal and serene highnesses, who went in the evening to the French comedy, and were entertained on the following days by the duke Lewis of

Brunswick, his serene highness's uncle, general Yorke, &c.

On the 11th their highnesses arrived at Loo, on the 12th at Twickel, and the same day passed the frontiers of the seven provinces.

Paris, Feb. 14th. Some days ago an officer, of the regiment of Champagne, being at mafs at Douay, in French Flanders, a burgher happened to tread upon his dog, which so exasperated the officer, that he beat the man severely; and, on his making resistance, killed him on the spot. This outrage so incensed the inhabitants, that they gathered about the house where the officer lodged, demolished the windows, seized his baggage and threw it into the street; broke his post chaise and hamstringed his horses, and afterwards fell upon the officer himself, and dragged him through the kennel, till he died. The officers on duty, taking the alarm, beat to arms, secured all the gates, fired upon the townsmen, and killed nine, wounded many more, and soon dispersed the rest. This affair, being properly represented, is now under consideration at court, and it is thought the regiment will be broke.

At a general court of our East India company held this day, M. Berzin informed them in the king's name, that his majesty would give them no further assistance, because he could not do it but at the expence of his other subjects; that the stockholders might make provision for continuing the trade and paying the debts, or else declare that they could not continue it; in which case his majesty would see to it; that the stockholders in the mean time should continue to

receive a dividend of 40 livres for each share till paid off, and should chuse syndics from among themselves to manage their affairs. The directors had previously resigned.

The governor of Cayenne and Guyanne, an associate of the academy of Caen, has proposed the three following premiums, to be disposed of next year. "The first of 500 livres; for salting, at the least expence, beef, which, when carried to the West-Indies, shall be as good as the Irish. The second of 400 livres, for making flour of the grain of the province, that will bear exportation to the colonies as well as the English. The third of 300 livres, for preparing and salting butter equal to the Irish."

Yesterday fourteen fellows were burnt alive at Brie, near this city, for poisoning the cattle of that province.

At a place called Buch, near Versailles, lives a woman, the iris of whose eyes is divided into 12 sections, forming an exact dial, the figures resembling those on the small watches that are included in rings to wear on the finger. She was born with this peculiarity, and yet has the perfect use of her sight.

Wurtemberg, Feb. 16. This being our duke's birth-day, there was a grand hunting in the forests, when his highness, and the lords of the court, killed 304 deer; 3000 hares, 290 foxes, 394 partridges, 111 pheasants, and 27 woodcocks; in the evening, the whole court appeared at the opera in their hunting dresses, and at night supped in high good humour.

Saxony, Feb. 1st. The dis-

temper among the horned cattle, which has lately raged in this electorate to such a degree as to kill between two and three thousand head of cattle in a short time in five villages only, is greatly abated, by hanging four or five onions about the beasts neck, directly after they are taken ill, and will not eat. Those onions draw out the infection, and look the next day as if they had been boiled. This remedy is to be repeated several times, and the onions which have been used, are to be buried in a deep hole. In a few days after, the cattle are taken with a running at the nose, which carries off the distemper. It is also proper at that time to hang up some onions in the distempered cattle's stables.

Gran, in Hungary, Jan. 25th. In removing the foundation of the castle in this city, to make room for a new palace, the workmen found an earthen vase, containing 1258 Roman medals, fourteen of which were silver, and the rest copper. Those of silver are of the emperors Gordian, Maximilian, Dioclesian, and Constantine; and those of copper were struck in the reigns of Claudius, Tacitus, Probus, Carus, Carinus, &c. There are also in this collection two medals of the empress Magna Urbica Augusta, who is supposed to have been the wife of Carinus.

Copenhagen, Jan. 25. Notice has been given at the head of all the regiments in the king's service, that no officer for the future will be permitted to marry till he has deposited in the widow's chest a sum of money, which for a colonel is fixed at 1000 rixdollars; for a lieu-

lieutenant - colonel or major at 600; for a captain at 400; and for a lieutenant at 300. Their widows will be entitled to a pension, from the time of their husband's death, of 40 per cent. of the money deposited.

Naples, Jan. 28. In the night of the 19th of this month, a mountainous rock, about 18 miles from this city, split asunder, and the waters which were probably contained in its cavities, joined to a very heavy rain, washed away and destroyed two villages situated on its declivity, and where upwards of 150 persons perished. The waters rushed at the same time into the town of Castellamare, which is at the foot of the mountain, and rose in some places to the height of 14 feet. A great number of the inhabitants took refuge on board the vessels which lay in the port, and there waited with the utmost impatience for day-light, to know the fate of their habitations and effects. Several warehouses and other buildings were entirely under water.

There are now living at Folkstone three men and two women, children of one father and one mother, whose ages put together amount to 402, and who, with their proper issue by blood, now living, amount to the number of 100 persons, viz. children 5; grand-children, 16; great-grand-children, 60; and great-great-grand-children, 19. It is somewhat extraordinary, that so numerous an offspring should live and reside in so small a town at one time.

Died lately. Elizabeth Cave, of St. Luke's work-house, aged 100.

Mr. Stevens, at Bletchingly, aged 103.

One Lars Nillson, in Sweden, aged 104. At 70, when his hair was white, and his sight greatly weakened, he had a fever, which continued two months, in which time his hair came quite off; but, on his recovery, it grew again of the colour it was in his youth, his eye-sight returned, and no alteration happened in either till his death.

Jacob Mayer, of Berne in Switzerland, aged 115.

M. A R C H.

Arrived from Osnaburg, 5th. Baron de Schele, whom the states and noble chapter had sent with the news, that the election was happily fallen, agreeable to his majesty's intentions, upon his second son prince Frederick, as bishop and sovereign of that see.

Sir Thomas Harrison having waited on the right honourable the lord chief justice Pratt, and presented to his lordship the freedom of the city of London in a gold box, pursuant to the order of common council; his lordship returned the following answer:

‘S I R,

It is impossible for me not to feel the most sensible pleasure in finding my behaviour in the administration of justice approved by the city of London; the most respectable body in this kingdom, after the two houses of parliament.

If they have been pleased, from

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any

any part of my conduct, to entertain an opinion of my integrity (the best quality of a judge) my utmost ambition is satisfied; and I may venture, without the reproach of vanity, to take to myself the character of an honest man, which the city of London hath told me I am intitled to; but they will give me leave, at the same time, to ascribe it only to my own good fortune, that I happened to be distinguished upon the present occasion beyond the rest of my brethren; since I am persuaded, that, if they had been called upon as I was, they would have acted with the like conscientious regard to their oaths, and to the law of the land.

Since, however, the city of London has now given me a reputation, I must take more than ordinary care to preserve their gift by the strictest attention to my duty, knowing, that the best way of thanking the public for honours like these, is by persevering in the same conduct by which their approbation was first acquired.

12th. Came on to be heard at the bar of the house of lords, an appeal from the court of session in Scotland, wherein John Walker and others, members of the town council of Edinburgh, were appellants, and the magistrates of the said city respondents, relating to the right of presenting ministers to the churches there; when, after a hearing of two days, the house was pleased to affirm the decree of the court of session.

The victualling contract for his majesty's navy was this day 24 s. and 8 d. a hundred for beef, not

3 d. a pound, though beef, in common is sold for 4 d. half-penny.

At 39 minutes and 30 seconds after ten, began an 17th. eclipse of the moon, which continued increasing till 3 minutes and 48 seconds after midnight, at which time 8 digits and 40 minutes of the moon's apparent surface were eclipsed.

The new harbour at Hartley, made by Sir John Hussey Delaval, bart. was opened in 20th. the presence of many thousand spectators; and the next tide two vessels, one of them full laden, sailed in, notwithstanding the sea was uncommonly high, and the wind easterly, through the entrance which was cut out of the rock about three hundred yards long and nineteen feet deep. There were entertainments in all the public houses; besides which, three large oxen, and several hog-heads of ale, were given to the populace. This astonishing work has been completed in three years.

His majesty went to the house of peers, and gave 21st. the royal assent to the following bills, viz.

The bill for naturalizing his most serene highness the hereditary prince of Brunswick Lunenburgh.

The bill to continue an act for allowing the free importation of tallow, hogs-lard, and grease, for a further limited time, from Ireland.

The bill for better regulating his majesty's marine forces when on shore.

The bill to amend an act of last sessions, for laying an additional duty on cyder and perry.

And

And to several private bills.

Bethlem hospital is to pay from this day to the 29th of September 2s. 3d. per stone for mutton, veal, and beef, whereas for the same months last year the charge was only 1s. 9d. per stone. Several salesmen, who were examined before a committee of the house of commons, to discover the causes of this increase of price, alledged many causes not at all conclusive or probable.

26th. This day his majesty signed a proclamation for the sale by auction of all his majesty's lands in the islands of Grenada, the Grenadines, Dominica, St. Vincent and Tobago, excepting such lands as shall be necessary for fortifications and other military works, glebes for ministers, allotments for school-masters, high roads, woodlands, and other public purposes; under the following conditions. That the purchasers pay 20 per cent. of the whole purchase money down, 10 per cent. in one year, 10 per cent. in the second year, and 20 per cent. every year after, till all is paid. That every purchaser shall have one white man, or two white women, for every 100 acres cleared, or pay 20 l. for every white woman, and 40 l. for every white man wanting. That one acre in twenty shall be cleared every year, till half the land is cleared, 5 l. to be paid for every acre not so cleared. That sixpence per acre be paid to the crown as a quit-rent on such lands as shall be cleared. No person to purchase more than 300 acres of land in Dominica, or 500 in the other islands. That districts shall

be allotted for towns; a penny per foot for ground-rent for tenements, and sixpence per acre for fields. No more than one town lot to one person, and five acres of pasture land to each town lot; 800 acres in each parish to be reserved for poor settlers, to be divided into lots of not less than ten, nor more than thirty acres each; to be granted in fee-simple. The land to be occupied and entered upon in three months after the grant. No lands granted to poor settlers to be alienable by sale or otherwise, for seven years, except for the children of the first settlers; and all mines of gold and silver to be reserved to the crown. The sale to be in June next, if surveys can be made so soon.

The claim of a noble lord to the island of St. Vincent, after a solemn hearing, was adjudged invalid; his lordship's ancestor, instead of landing there, clearing a certain quantity of land, and placing thereon a certain number of white people, having never so much as attempted to land, after miscarrying at Sta. Lucia. And it is in consequence of this determination, that St. Vincent is mentioned with the other Islands, in the above proclamation.

The earl of Morton was elected president of the royal 27th. society, in the room of the late earl of Macclesfield.

At the anniversary feast of the London hospital, 29th. 1714 l. was collected for that charity. As was some days before 553 l. at that of the small-pox hospital. And a considerable sum at that of the lying-in charity for married

married women at their own habitations.

30th. Came on the election of a high steward for the university of Cambridge, when there appeared among the blackhoods for the earl of Hardwicke, *placet* 103, *non placet* 101. Among the whitehoods the proctors accounts differed. Mr. Longmere's was for lord Hardwicke, *placet* 108, *non placet* 107, Mr. Forster's was *non placet* 108, *placet* 107, on which a scrutiny was demanded by his lordship's friends, and refused; and a great confusion ensuing, the vice-chancellor adjourned the senate *sine die*.

31st. The scaffold for fixing his majesty's statue at the Royal Exchange was struck, when it was remarked, that the scepter was put into the wrong hand.

Lieutenant governor Thicknes, who some time ago sent a wooden gun to lord Orwell, has been since sentenced to three months imprisonment, and a fine of 100l. &c. for it, as a libel on his lordship.

At the sale of Mr. Thoresby's Museum, the following medals and coins sold as under.

	l.	s.	d.
The famous copper medal of Col. Lilbourne	2	17	0
A Saxon penny of king Alfred's	—	—	4 1 0
Two pennys of Alfred and Ethelred	—	—	5 7 6
One Eadachius	—	—	4 10 0
One ditto, struck at York	—	—	8 8 0
One Stephen and Henry	—	—	3 7 0

Two groats of Richard III. — — 3 3 0

A proof piece for a penny of Henry VIII. 3 0 0

A Scarborough siege coin Charles I. — — 7 7 0

Ditto — — 7 2 6

A commonwealth sixpence — — 3 4 0

A pewter Irish crown of James II. — — 5 7 6

A commonwealth farthing — — 3 6 0

Two farthings of Charles II. — — 3 4 0

The society of arts in the Strand have given a premium of 50l. to Mr. Benjamin Moore, for the introduction of the manufactory of emboss'd paper into this kingdom, and making that paper superior to that imported from abroad; and have offered a premium of 5l. for every hundred of turbot, not less than sixteen inches from the eye to the fork, and 2l. 10s. for every hundred under sixteen inches and not less than ten inches from the eye to the fork, which shall be caught by British subjects with hooks and lines, and brought for sale in London or Westminster, between the 1st of May and 31st of August 1764.

At a late sale of the forfeited estates of Panmure, Southesk, and Maristhal, every heir bought his own, and offered for it in person, to the great joy of great numbers of people of all ranks, drawn by friendship or curiosity to so affecting a scene.

The king of Spain has lately sent the university of Edinburgh a present of four large folio volumes of prints engraved from the paintings found in the ruins of Hercula-

neum; and the university have sent his majesty a very handsome letter of thanks written in Latin.

Report of the state of the Magdalen charity, from its opening on the 10th August 1758, to the 22d instant.

Admitted in all	—	583
Of whom there have been reconciled to; and received by their friends	— —	63
Placed in services in reputable families and to trades		196
Proved lunatics, and afflicted with incurable fits	—	23
Died	— — —	10
Uneasy under restraint; and at their own desire discharged		53
Never returned from hospitals, to which they were sent to be cured	— —	28
For faults and irregularities discharged	— — —	94
Now in the house	— —	116
		583

Fifteen women, who were discharged the house, are since well married. And many who were dismissed, from uneasiness under restraint, by their own desire, and for small faults, have, rather than return to their former evil course of life, gone into industrious and honest employments, and are likely to live with reputation in the world.

Since Great Britain has been in possession of the river of St. Lawrence, a very valuable whale fishery has been discovered there, which was unknown to the French. Upon this discovery the people of New England fitted out ten vessels of 100 tons each, which had such success, that in 1762 they sent fif-

ty vessels, and last year upwards of eighty. The quantity of whalebone produced by this fishery, and imported from New England within these two years, has already reduced that commodity from 500 l. to 350 l. a ton.

A gentleman lately returned from the East Indies, and who was very curious in his observations there, relates, that some years ago there was a republic of Jews at the city of Patna, the capital of the kingdom of Bahar, which once consisted of 60,000 families, but is now reduced to 4000. They have a synagogue near the nabob's palace, in which their records are kept, engraved on copper-plates in Hebrew characters; so that these Jews pretend they can shew their own history from the reign of Nebuchadnezzar to the present time.

The abovementioned race of Jews declare themselves to be of the tribe of Manasseh, a part whereof was, by order of that haughty conqueror, carried to the easternmost province of his large empire, which extended to the Indus, from whence they removed to the Ganges; and this journey 20,000 of them travelled in three years from their setting out from Babylon. An abstract of their history has been translated from the Hebrew, and may be of service to the learned world.

A new machine for extinguishing fires by a chemical explosion has lately been invented at Paris, and is already in such high repute, that it is said the inventor has made his fortune by it. And some very successful experiments lately made by order of the intendants of

of marine at Brest, where an old man of war was fired in each hatchway, and extinguished by throwing in the above machines, have occasioned that few ships of war or merchantmen now go to sea without them.

Their royal and most serene highnesses the hereditary prince and princess of Brunswick arrived the 15th instant at Nienburg, and the next day at Zell. The burghesses of both these towns received them under arms, and the air resounded with acclamations of joy. They were complemented at Nienburg by the generals Sporcken, Wangenheim, Reden, and Walmoden; and at Zell by baron de Furstcini and M. de Bock. The countess of Yarmouth received them at Neustadt. Their highnesses continued their route to Luenburg, escorted by a detachment of horse.

On the 19th his serene highness arrived at Brunswick. And on the 21st her royal highness followed. She was met at Wenden, three miles from Brunswick, by a party of light horse; and when she came within one mile of the town, by the reigning duke, the duchess, prince Ferdinand, and the whole illustrious family, who were come in six coaches and six. After reposing some time in a large splendid green pavilion, the reigning duchess and her royal and serene highness set out in an open coach, that the people might see her. During her passage, and at her approach to town, attended by military music, 90 guns were thrice discharged, and the bells of the town and adjacent places were rung. Without the gate pa-

raded a company of prince Frederick's grenadiers, and forty of the horse life-guards, dressed in leather jerkins, laced with silver. Within the gate were two battalions of the foot-guards, two battalions of Gen. Imhoff's regiment, two battalions of general Mansberg's regiment, and two battalions of the hereditary prince's own regiment. Her royal highness was preceded by two squadrons of hussars, and followed by 60 of the horse life-guards, another squadron of the hussars, and a great number of officers on horseback. After they alighted at Granhoff, the duke's palace, the princess appeared at the window, while the regiments filed by and saluted her; which done, they went to the ramparts, and fired three salvos. At five o'clock their highnesses sat down to table, from which they arose at eight, played at cards in the great assembly room till ten, when they went to supper, and then retired to the hereditary prince's palace.

On the 22d, the whole court was assembled in the morning in the prince's palace: At two her royal highness went to the duke's palace, with lady Stuart in her coach, followed by his serene highness. In the evening their highnesses went to a new opera, and were received at their entrance with great acclamations of the people. After the opera they supped in the great ball room, and there was a splendid ball, which lasted till early the next morning.

On the 23d they dined in public, and in the evening went to an operetta.

On

On the 24th was a great ball at court, and a supper in the parterre of the opera house, on a table in the form of an A, with 80 covers.

On the 25th was an operetta. And,

On the 27th a pantomime, called, Harlequin in the Harts.

This amiable princess has already won the hearts of her future subjects, by her most gracious and popular behaviour.

Madrid, February 20. On the 16th, the prince of Asturias espoused his sister in the name of the archduke Leopold. His catholic majesty led the queen mother by the hand to and from the altar. All the foreign ministers assisted at the ceremony.

Stockholm, February 10. Last year there were exported from Gottenburgh 101,143 tons of salted herrings, 48 smoaked, and also 322 fresh; and 3284 tons from that city, and 38,728 from other parts of the same coast, have been sent into the inland parts of the kingdom. There have been likewise exported 63,016 cannes of oil from this fish, which, after an absence of 50 years, have, within these two years, returned in great plenty to our coast. This branch of commerce meets with the encouragement of the government. And, as the approach of the whales has been found to drive the herrings away, several additional vessels for the whale fishery on this coast have been constructed.

About the beginning of this month, a girl was born near Toulon, in France, whose whole face resembled a hare, excepting her

ears; she was otherwise fair and well shaped. Her mother declares, that at the beginning of her pregnancy she had a strong inclination to eat the raw heart of a hare, which her husband brought home one day, but could not prevail with herself to make known her desire.—Another very remarkable fact comes authenticated from the same quarter. The wife of a considerable merchant, who constantly attended mass, and used to give charity to a poor man who had lost his right arm, was soon after brought to bed of a son who wanted his right hand, which the mother attributed to the impression the maimed appearance of the man made upon her mind. But what is still more remarkable; this son is grown to maturity, married, and has now a son, who, without any such impressions, was born without a hand. How will the naturalists account for this phenomenon?

By the death of the late Sir Jacob Gerard Downing without male issue, an estate of 6000l. per annum devolves to the university of Cambridge, for building and endowing a college to be called Downing college.

Mrs. Gillet, of St. Paul's Alley, Fenchurch-street, Mrs. Smith, of Hatton Garden, and a journeyman cooper's wife in Paul's Alley, Barbican, were lately delivered each of three children.

Died lately. William Taylor of Basingstoke, aged 102.

Mr. Pring, of Little Brick-hill, aged 102.

Robert Maber, at Frampton, Dorsetshire, aged 104.

A peasant in Sweden, aged 104. having

having had 115 descendants, of whom 47 are living.

An invalid of the same nation, aged 104.

James Wark, of Belfast, aged 106.

Mrs. Elizabeth M'Neal, in Dublin, aged 107.

Elizabeth Greig, a beggar-woman, at Leith, aged 109; she retained her senses and spirit to the last, and a few days before her death had vigour sufficient to go about in quest of alms.

John Bourke, in the Isle of Man, aged 112.

Peter Martin, in Auvergne, in France, aged 113.

David Evans, in Greenwich, aged 114.

Ralph Hart, at Newcastle, aged 115.

Mr. George Brett, in Ireland, aged 115, with all his teeth sound.

Mrs. Clifford, of Wexford, aged 117.

Mrs. Elizabeth Taylor, of Piccadilly, aged 131.

annular, three or four dark spots were observed near the lower limb of the sun; which, if they were not in the sun itself, are supposed to be occasioned by the rugged or mountainous edge of the moon. The planet Venus made her appearance during the eclipse, but none of the other heavenly bodies.

The thermometer being exposed to the sun, before the eclipse began, rose from 65 to 73; during the eclipse it fell $17\frac{1}{2}$ deg, at the time of the greatest obscuration to $55\frac{1}{2}$; and at the end of the eclipse it rose again to 61.

The archduke Joseph was crowned king of the Romans ^{3d}, in Francfort, and the solemnity of the coronation performed with the usual ceremonies, and with great dignity and order. The three ecclesiastical electors, and the electoral ambassadors, all in their mantles adorned with gold lace, went to the dome between nine and ten in the morning. The emperor and the king of the Romans, preceded by a numerous train, repaired thither an hour after. Their majesties were received at the gate by their electoral highnesses, the trabons of Saxony being posted as a guard there. The church was hung with rich tapestry, representing the great actions of the emperors of the august house of Austria. Before the gate of the choir was an altar richly adorned; on the right-hand of which was the emperor's throne; on the left, that of the elector of Mentz; and opposite, that of the king of the Romans. The seats of the two other electors, and for the plenipotentiaries, were ranged about in a half-circle. The coronation

A P R I L.

The long expected annular eclipse of the sun was observed at London, Greenwich, and many other places. But as the sky was not favourable to the observation at London or Greenwich, we shall give that made with great distinctness at Edinburgh, where the sky was remarkably clear.

The eclipse began 9h. 9 m. A.M. greatest obscuration 10 24

end 11 53

Just before the eclipse became

ronation was performed by his electoral highness of Mentz, with the ceremonies prescribed by the golden bull. Towards two in the afternoon, the emperor and the king of the Romans quitted the church, and, according to custom, returned on foot, under a superb canopy, to Romerberg; and, during the procession, 300 pieces of cannon were fired. The new king was cloathed with the ornaments of royalty, the crown upon his head, scepter in his hand, and antique slippers, covered with pearls, on his feet. Being arrived at the Hotel-de-ville, their majesties sat down to table, and were served by the respective representatives of the electors, and by the other great officers of the empire, each performing the functions of his post. At the end of the repast, they went to one of the windows of the great hall, to see the money, with the gold and silver medals, thrown amongst the people; and at seven in the evening they returned to their palace. Next day the new king of the Romans received the compliments of an infinite number of persons of distinction.

In the mean time, whole oxen were roasted in the streets and given to the populace; the medals and money thrown among them amounted to 150,000 crowns.

His majesty went to the 5th. house of peers, and gave the royal assent to the following bills, viz.

A bill for granting a certain sum out of the sinking fund for the service of the year 1764.

A bill for granting certain duties on goods in the British colonies

for the support of the government there; and for encouraging the trade to the sugar colonies.

A bill for lessening the duty on the importation, and raising it on the exportation of beaver skins.

A bill for regulating pilots, &c.

A bill for encouraging the manufacture of British sail-cloth.

A bill for discharging recognizances estreated in the exchequer.

A bill for regulating buildings, and preventing fires.

And several road bills, and bills for inclosing land, &c,

By the above act relating to the British colonies, a duty of 1l. 2s. is laid on foreign clayed sugars instead of 5s. 6d.; a duty of 6d. a lb. on indigo, instead of 2d; coffee 2l. 19s. 9d. per cwt; Madeira wine 7l. per ton; Port and Spanish wines 10s. a ton; wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, 2s. a piece; callicoes 2s. 6d. a piece; cambricks 3s. French lawns 3s; coffee and pie-mento of the growth of the British colonies, coffee 7s. a cwt. pie-mento 2d. a lb.; foreign molasses and syrups 3d. a gallon, instead of 6d. which was seldom paid. These duties are all to be paid into the exchequer, and reserved for defraying the charges of protecting the British colonies in America.

At the anniversary meeting of the Magdalen charity, the sermon was preached by the bishop of Clonfert, and the collection amounted to upwards of 1200l. near double the sum usually collected.

Several thousand journey-
men silk weavers went in 9th.

pro-

procession from Spitalfields, and waited on his majesty at the queen's palace in St. James's Park, with a petition, representing the miserable condition themselves and families are reduced to; by the clandestine importation of French silks. They waited before the court-yard, and two gentlemen, belonging to the said manufactory, had the honour to be introduced to his majesty's presence, and presented their petition, which his majesty received in the most gracious manner, and gave for answer, that an affair of such consequence to the kingdom should be properly laid before the parliament, and that they might depend on his care and protection.

12th. The second division of the Havannah prize money was paid in the following shares.

	l.	s.	d.
Lord Albemarle	20,000	0	0
General Elliot -	4,000	0	0
Major General -	1,125	0	0
Brigadier General -	331	8	6
Field Officer -	88	4	8
Captain -	30	8	1
Subaltern -	18	15	7
Serjeant -	1	9	5
Corporal -	1	2	6
Private -	0	13	5

14th. A terrible fire broke out at Mr. Nash's in St. James's square, which instantly consumed that house, and damaged two others. The fire spread so fast that six persons perished in the flames.

16th. The magistrates of Finsbury division, attended by the several officers of Clerkenwell parish, went in person and seized a great number of hogs, kept and fed on dead horses, distempered cat-

tle from the slaughter-houses, &c. in one yard there were at least ten waggon loads of bones of horses, cows, &c. three dead horses, and one alive almost eat up with distempers, brought there to be killed; cows, dead dogs, blood and offals for the hogs. This surely makes it necessary for persons of all ranks to be careful of what they eat, as no doubt, people in other parts of the town may be tempted, from the high price of meat, to take the same method; for this kind of food, it is said, makes hogs much fatter, and does it quicker than any other. It is, therefore, hoped, that the magistrates every where will be more attentive for the future to stop and prevent a practice, which, besides being so nauseous in itself, cannot fail of being attended with the most fatal consequences to the health and lives of those whose misfortune it may be to touch such unwholesome food in pork or bacon.

His majesty went to the 18th. house of peers, and gave the royal assent to the following bills, viz.

The bill for vesting the fort of Senegal, and its dependencies, in the African company.

The bill for ascertaining and regulating in what cases letters shall be sent or received, free from the duty of postage.

The bill for swearing affidavits to be made use of, in any courts of the county Palatine of Durham.

The bill for applying the money granted this session, for defraying the charge of pay and cloathing of the militia for one year.

The

The bill for charging on the sinking fund certain annuities, and for consolidating such of said annuities as are granted for a certain term of years irredeemable.

The bill for granting, for a limited time, liberty to carry rice from his majesty's provinces of South Carolina and Georgia to other parts of America, on paying British duties.

The bill for allowing further time for the inrollment of deeds and wills made by papists, and for the relief of protestant purchasers.

The bill for paving, cleansing, lighting, &c. the squares, streets, lanes, and alleys, in the city and liberty of Westminster.

The bill for raising money by loans or exchequer bills.

The bill for preventing frauds committed by bankrupts, and for extending the laws relating to hackney coaches to the counties of Kent and Essex.

The bill for indemnifying persons who have omitted to take the oaths to qualify themselves for offices, &c.

The bill for amending and reducing into one act several laws in being relating to raising and training the militia.

The bill for preventing inconveniencies arising in cases of merchants, and such other persons as are within the statutes of bankrupts, being intitled to privilege of parliament, and becoming insolvent.

The bill to encourage the cambrick manufacture in England.

The bill for importing salt from

Europe to Quebec for a limited time.

The bill for granting a bounty upon the importation of hemp, and rough and undressed flax, from his majesty's colonies in America.

The bill for enabling his majesty, with the advice of his privy council, to order the free importation of provisions from Ireland during the next recess of parliament, or as the necessity of the time may require.

The bill for continuing several acts of parliament made for the encouragement of the whale fishery carried on by his majesty's subjects, particularly that on the coasts of America.

The bill for establishing an agreement with the governor and company of the bank of England, for raising certain sums of money for the service of the year 1764.

The bill for preventing such paper bills of credit, as may hereafter be issued within any of his majesty's colonies or plantations in America, from being made legal tender in payment of money.

And several other road and private bills.

After which, his majesty was pleased to make a most gracious speech; and the lord chancellor, by his majesty's command, prorogued the parliament to Thursday the twenty-first day of June following.

A waggon, newly invented by Mr. Bourne, with wheels ^{19th.} but two feet high, so as to go under the body, and sixteen inches broad, and which had already made

two journeys between Leominster and London as a stage, was tried on the New Road, Islington, before several of the gentlemen belonging to the society of arts, &c. against a common broad-wheel waggon. Each of them had five tons weight of stone, and was drawn by eight horses, and the two carriages went abreast from the new road just by Pancras, to within a small distance of the dog-house bar. On their return they were tried with four horses each, for a little way, when it appeared, that the common broad-wheel waggon had greatly the advantage, and that the four horses in it did not work seemingly harder than the eight in the new-invented one. Mr. Bourne's waggon does not seem calculated for roads that are uneven, or for steep ascents; but, on the other hand, by the situation of the wheels, it can pass on narrower roads than the broad-wheel carriages, and can turn in very little space, and without difficulty.

23d. At a chapter of the most noble order of the garter held at St. James's his most serene highness Adolphus Frederic, reigning duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, and the right honourable the earl of Halifax, were elected in the room of the late earls Granville and Waldegrave. And, next day, his majesty was pleased to fill up the vacant stall at Westminster, of the most honourable military order of the Bath, by investing lord Clive with the ribbon of that order with the usual ceremonies.

Some days ago forty journey-men taylorers were taken out of the

Bull-head in Bread-street, by a party of master taylorers, associated to prevent unlawful combinations among them, and confined in Wood-street compter, on suspicion of their being those, who, refusing to comply with the masters terms, and the regulations of the magistrate, call themselves *Flints*, in contradistinction to those who submit, and are in derision stiled by the first *Dungs*. But on their examination the next day, and hearing council on both sides, before the sitting alderman at Guildhall, it appeared that both masters and jailors had acted illegally, by taking them up and confining them without a warrant; besides, nothing could be alledged against many of them. Upon this, therefore, the journeymen, all to three or four with whom the masters were happy enough to make up matters for a trifle to each, brought actions of false imprisonment against the masters, and all of them against the jailors. This little affair shews how dangerous any, even the least, shadow of authority is in low and ignorant hands.

The society of arts have lately given the following premiums: 30th.

Fifty pounds to Mr. Harrison, for a masterly improvement in the spinning-wheel, by which a child may do double the business that even a grown person can with the common wheel.

140 guineas to Mr. N. Reid, for a statue of Diana in marble, allowed to be a masterly performance.

50 guineas to a German artist, for a bass relief of the rape of Cassandra;

fandra; and another of 25 guineas to another German, for a bafs relief of Hector and Andromache.

50 guineas for the beft landſcape, to Mr. Barret from Dublin; 25, for the ſecond beft, to Mr. Bond of Birmingham; 15, for the third beft, to Mr. Steuart of London.

May we beg leave to recommend to the ſociety, premiums to promote the uſe of Mr. Harrifon's invention; an invention, from which the nation in general, and the poor in particular, may receive ſo great and ſo immediate benefit. It would ſoon increaſe, by one third, perhaps, the number of our moſt uſeful hands.

The German commiſſariate, for receiving the demands of all who had loſt provisions, horſes, liveries, ſhirts, &c. in the ſervice of the allies, being recalled; a commiſſion of only three perſons was appointed, by and under the controul of the Britiſh treaſury, to deſcend into the detail of thoſe demands. The whole ſum demanded was publicly ſtated at between ſeven and eight millions ſterling; of which the commiſſioners, it is ſaid, have already liquidated 1,354,000 l. in the manner following:

Allowed as reaſonable £. 103,000
Poſtponed till further

proofs can be had 263,000
Rejected as unreaſonable 988,000

1,354,000

Information having been given, that ſeveral of his majeſty's ſubjects have been for a conſiderable time, and are ſtill, detained in France as hoſtages for the pay-

ment of unſatisfied ranſom bills, notice has been given in the Gazette, that in caſe ſuch ranſom bills are not forthwith diſcharged, proſecutions will be commenced in his majeſty's court of admiralty againſt all maſters, owners, and others, unjuſtly reſuſing or neglecting to pay them.

There has been collected in England, on the brief iſſued for the benefit of the colleges of Philadelphia and New York, excluſive of conſiderable private benefactions, and ſeveral briefs yet outſtanding, no leſs than 9600 l. ſterling.

Some time ago, two labouring men, digging ſomewhere in Stow-Langtoft, a village near St. Edmund's Bury, in Suffolk, found an earthen pot, full of old Roman coins. The metal is not valuable, for they are all copper; nor are the pieces themſelves remarkably rare. Thoſe that had an opportunity of ſeeing the moſt of them, could not certainly diſtinguiſh more than four ſorts; viz. Victorinus, Poſthumus, Tetricus Aug. and Tetricus Cæſ. But the number was very conſiderable, being 7000, if not more. They were ſold to a man at Bury, for one ſhilling a pound, and at that rate ſold for more than two guineas. The purchaſer was content with a moderate profit, for he offered to ſell them at a farthing each, pick and chooſe, or half a crown a pound. Excepting two or three, they were all nearly of the ſame ſize, and what the ancients, it is ſuppoſed, would have called quadrantes, tranſlated in ſome places of the New Teſtament a farthing.

Exports of gold and silver to India.

	gold oz.	silver oz.
From 1753 to 1758.	118,127.	10,556,748
From 1759 to 1764.	9,760.	1,411,116

At Bristol assizes, three were capitally convicted, but were respited.

At Cambridge assizes, one was capitally convicted.

At Chelmsford assizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Coventry assizes, a woman was capitally convicted for returning from transportation, and for a robbery since, but reprieved for a month.

At Chester assizes, three were capitally convicted.

At Dorsetshire assizes, two were capitally convicted, but were afterwards reprieved.

At Devon assizes, six were capitally convicted.

At Exeter assizes, seven were capitally convicted; one for murder.

At Gloucester assizes, three were capitally convicted.

At Hereford assizes, five persons were capitally convicted, four of whom were reprieved.

At Huntingdon assizes, a woman was tried on two several indictments: first, for feloniously shooting at Overman Smith, of which she was acquitted; the second, for unlawfully shooting at him, with intent to kill him, of which she was convicted, and ordered to be imprisoned twelve months.

At Hertford assizes, one was capitally convicted.

At Kingston assizes, six; one for murder.

At Lancaster assizes, three (one of them for pulling down a mill) were capitally convicted, of whom one was reprieved.

At Maidstone assizes, fifteen were capitally convicted; one of them was for a detestable crime with an old man of 60, whom he stabb'd, robb'd, and afterwards used most inhumanly. The old man, however, was so well recovered as to give evidence against the villain, on which he was found guilty. Two were executed. The attendance of the clergyman was dispensed with during their confinement after condemnation, on account of a contagious distemper raging in that gaol.

At the assizes at Monmouth, a girl about 18 was burnt for the murder of her mistress.

At Norwich assizes, five were capitally convicted.

At Nottingham assizes, one was capitally condemned for theft; one for murder was discharged, being lunatic, and another for the same murder died in the arms of the gaoler as he was bringing him to trial.

At Oxford assizes, three were capitally convicted. At this assizes, three young men were tried and cast for transportation, for stealing the club-box to which they belonged. In the course of this trial a point of law was started by the prisoners council, touching the property of the money, which by the indictment was vested in Mr. Galten, in whose custody it was from time to time left by the society; and for which they had his note of hand as a security: however, upon summing up

up the evidence, Mr. Justice Wilmot, with the utmost perspicuity, set aside every objection, and gave it as his opinion, that the several sums of money thus accumulated by a society, as their general fund, absolutely ceased to be the property of any individual member, and could only be applied to the purposes directed by their articles; that the person who took upon him the charge of the stock was answerable for it to the society, since the several locks could only be considered as a kind of check for the satisfaction of the society, and he had the sole custody of it.—His lordship also informed the jury, that, though he had not the least doubt in his own breast, he had sent the council for the prisoners to the other court, to take Mr. baron Adams's opinion, without imparting his own; and that baron Adams was likewise clear in the same sentiments with himself. His lordship also enumerated many cases wherein a man's privately taking away what was indisputably his own property, is felonious: for instance, things pawned; cloaths left with a taylor to make up; goods delivered to a carrier, &c.

At Reading assizes, one for murder was executed.

At Shrewsbury assizes, five were capitally convicted.

At Salisbury assizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved. At this assizes one Henry Timbrell, an old fellow, was tried for castrating his two apprentices, the one aged eight, the other sixteen. He could not be convicted on the Coventry act, as *lying in wait* could not be

proved; he was therefore found guilty of a misdemeanor, sentenced to four years imprisonment, fined 29 s. 8 d. and to find security for his good behaviour. This sentence was deemed by the female part of the mob so inadequate to his crime, that all the constables of the city, the javelin-men, and, in short, the whole civil power, were scarce sufficient to protect him from their rage.

At Stafford assizes, four were capitally convicted, but two were reprieved.

At Winchester assizes, four.

At Warwick assizes, five, but four of them reprieved.

At York assizes, two were capitally convicted. At this assizes came on to be tried before the hon. Mr. baron Smythe, and a special jury of gentlemen of the county, a cause, wherein Thomas Broadly, of Hull, esq; (on behalf of the king and himself) was plaintiff, and William Keeling, and others, defendants, being an action of debt, brought on the statute of the 32d of Henry VIII. with a view to suppress the practice of buying pretended titles contrary to the said statute; when the jury, without going out of court, found a verdict for the plaintiff for 800l. being the value of the lands proved upon the trial to be so bought by the defendants. Also, before a special jury, a cause, wherein William Lewis, brewer, of York, was plaintiff, and the inhabitants of the hundred of Ouse and Darwent, in the East-riding, defendants; when a verdict was given for the plaintiff of 200l. part of the money

he had been robbed of in that hundred, which was all he could recover; no person being in company with him at the time the robbery was committed.

The magistrates of Edinburgh, with the committee of the convention of royal boroughs, have caused a representation to be drawn up, in order to be presented to his majesty in council; that his majesty would be graciously pleased to revoke the licence given to the recruiting officers of the Scotch regiment in the Dutch service, to levy men in Scotland, on account of the scarcity of hands there for the necessary purposes of agriculture and manufactures.

Report of the state of the city hospitals, for one year, ending the 23d instant.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S.		
Cured and discharged from this hospital	—	7440
Trusses given by a private hand to	—	16
Trusses given by the hospital to	—	20
Buried this year	—	341
Remaining under cure	—	400
Out-patients	—	135
<hr/>		
In all, including out patients	—	8352

ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL.		
Cured and discharged from this hospital	—	6853
Buried this year	—	292
Remaining under cure	—	473
Out-patients	—	194
<hr/>		
Total, including out-patients	—	7812

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL.		
Children put forth apprentices, and discharged out of this hospital last year, ten whereof were instructed in the mathematics	—	144
Buried the last year	—	11
Remaining in this hospital	—	991

BRIDEWELL HOSPITAL.		
Vagrants, &c. relieved and discharged	—	336
Maintained in several trades, &c.	—	69

BETHLEHEM HOSPITAL.		
Admitted into this hospital	—	222
Cured	—	129
Buried	—	57
Remaining under cure	—	267

It may be of some service to the poor, that our readers should know the terms, upon which patients are admitted into the several hospitals in and about London. They are these:

Saint Bartholomew's. Money advanced to bury the patient in case of death, and a governor's order.

Saint Thomas's. Security to bury the patient in case of death, but without a governor's order; a fee of six-pence to the steward for a petition.

Saint Austin's. The same as at St. Thomas's; but takes in only very bad cases.

London hospital. A governor's order.

Middlesex hospital. A governor's order, and a strict examination concerning the parish of women coming to lie in there.

Saint George's hospital. A governor's

vernor's order. No body is admitted to see the patients on Sundays.

Westminster hospital. A governor's order.

Many objections have been made to the above rules and restrictions, but probably with no great reason, as the intention of the governors cannot but be to do as much good as their limited funds will admit, and with as little prejudice as possible to the parishes in which the hospitals are situated. It were, indeed, to be wished, that all who stand in need of those charities, could be received, and that immediately. The good have a right to some relief of this kind. The bad may be reclaimed by it. Two of the principal objections to an indiscriminate and immediate reception, viz. the want of room and want of beds, may be obviated by frequent ventilation, and the use of straw instead of flocks and feathers, as straw may be much more readily changed, and at less expence, than feathers or flocks, and be freed from the infection which they are liable to receive more or less from every sick person lying upon them.

As several labourers were lately digging in a field near Xanten in the duchy of Cleves, which in ancient times was a Roman camp, one of their spades struck against a hard substance, which, upon farther enquiry, appeared to be an urn full of gold and other pieces, which the labourers immediately divided among them. The urn has disappeared, and has not yet been found. It is supposed to be of copper, or of some compo-

sition resembling that metal, as the pieces that lay next the side of it are somewhat discoloured. The gold pieces were 1800 in number, well preserved, and each of them weighs near 20 grains more than a ducat. There are all the emperors from Constantine to the last Valentinian; some of the usurper Eugene, and of the tyrant John de Ravenne, and the connoisseurs know how scarce they are even in Italy. There are some, but very few, of the empresses Galla-Placidia and Elia-Eudoxia, which are likewise very scarce. They represent, respectively, the busts of those emperors and empresses on the one side, while the reverse contains devices and inscriptions, that are much admired by the lovers of ancient remains.—His Prussian majesty has laid claim to this treasure, and has actually recovered 600 of the pieces.

Petersburgh, March 6. They have brought here from the mines in Siberia, 13,200 pounds weight of silver, and 990 pounds of gold, which has been collected this last year. The produce of the year 1762 was not so considerable; but the miners assure us, that the labours of the present year will be still more advantageous. Accounts have been since received, that a mine of virgin quicksilver has been accidentally discovered in the same country, and that dispositions were making to work it.

Philadelphia, Jan. 1st, 1764. On the 14th of last month, about sixty men from the frontier townships, provoked, it seems by the protection afforded by our government

vernment to some Indians who, they pretend, had destroyed their substance, and butchered many of their family and friends, whilst they themselves were refused any assistance against their depredations, or any shelter after them, came, all well mounted, and armed with firelocks, hangers, and hatchets, having travelled through the country in the night, to Conestogoe manor; and at day-break rushing into a village of Indians, who had been settled among the English since their first landing, and always lived in the greatest friendship and harmony with them, out of twenty Indians, of which the village consisted, butchered six, being all they found at home; after which they set their huts on fire.

Upon this, the magistrates of Lancaster sent out to collect the remaining Indians, brought them into the town for their better security against any farther attempt; condoled with them on the misfortune that had happened, promised them protection; and put them into the workhouse, a strong building, as a place of the greatest safety.

When the shocking news arrived in town, a proclamation was issued by the governor, requiring all magistrates and officers to do their utmost to discover and secure the murderers; and forbidding all persons to injure any Indians in the province.

Notwithstanding this proclamation, those cruel men again assembled themselves, and hearing that the remaining fourteen Indians were in the workhouse at Lancaster, they suddenly appeared in

that town, on the 27th of December; when fifty of them, armed as before, dismounting, went directly to the workhouse, and by violence broke open the door, and entered with the utmost fury in their countenances. — When the poor wretches saw that they had no protection nigh, nor could possibly escape, and being without the least weapon for defence, they divided into their little families, the children clinging to the parents; they fell on their knees, protested their ignorance, declared their love to the English, and that, in their whole lives, they had never done them injury; and in this posture they all received the hatchet! — Another proclamation has been issued, offering a great reward for apprehending the murderers.

But these proclamations have as yet produced no discovery; the murderers having given out such threatenings against those that disapprove their proceeding, that the whole country seems to be in the utmost terror, no one daring to speak what he knows; even the letters from thence, in which any dislike is expressed of the rioters, come without a name.

Died lately, Peter Neilson, at Copenhagen, aged 115.

Mrs. Smith, at Hemel Hempstead, aged 100.

M A Y.

The cause between Mr. Beardmore and the king's 4th. messengers was heard before lord chief

chief justice Pratt at Guildhall, in the course of which it appeared, that Mr. Beardmore had been taken into custody on the 11th of November, for a supposed connection with the Monitor, and confined till the 17th, two days of which he was debarred the use of pen, ink, and paper, nor permitted to converse with any of his friends, but in the presence of the messenger; that, when the lord mayor of London applied to bail him, the officer, whose business it was to examine him, neglected it, alledging, that the Monitors were much too voluminous to be inspected.

Mr. J. Scott, the former publisher of the Monitor, to prove the justice of Mr. Beardmore's commitment, presented a paper, setting forth, that this gentleman, together with the reverend Mr. Entick, Dr. Shebbeare, and others, were the authors; that the two latter had a salary of one hundred a year for their writings; and that he (Mr. Scott) was allowed the profits of the sale for his trouble, after the necessary expences were discharged.

Such being the groundwork of the charge and defence, the examination of witnesses, and the pleadings on both sides continued two hours; when it appearing, that Mr. Beardmore had suffered very considerably in being confined so long at the beginning of term, when he had a number of important causes to conduct; and his principal clerk, who transacted the business in his absence, being also taken up by the same warrant, the lord chief justice proceeded to give the

charge, in which he observed, that the seizure of Mr. Beardmore's person and papers was illegal: and that S—— of S—— should always be particularly careful to hear with their own ears, and see with their own eyes. He recommended moderation in the damages, as the messengers were nothing but servants, and consequently could not be considered as materially culpable in the intent. The jury in less than an hour brought in their verdict 1000 l. damages to Mr. Beardmore.

And, at a hearing some weeks after, before lord chief justice Pratt, and the rest of the judges of the same court, wherein the council for Mr. Beardmore were to shew cause, why a new trial should not be granted in order to set aside the above verdict, on account of excessive damages, after the pleadings of council were heard for two days, the motion was over-ruled, and the verdict established. Mr. Beardmore, in the course of the motion, offered to forego this verdict, in case the earl of Halifax would consent to have the action, then depending between Mr. Beardmore, and his lordship and the messengers, brought to a trial, and to abide by the damages; but the defendants council, it seems, had no authority to consent to such proposal.

Upon the determination of the jury, there was an universal shout from a considerable number of spectators. The council for the defendants were, the attorney and solicitor general, Messrs. serjeants Davy and Nares, and Mr. Wallis; and for the plaintiff, Mr. serjeant

serjeant Glynn, the recorder of London, Mr. Stow, Mr. Dunning, and Mr. Gardener.

The society of arts are come to a resolution to give none but honorary premiums to any of their members, in order to avoid all suspicions of partiality in their decisions.

A messenger, who did not set out from London till the day before yesterday at two in the afternoon, landed at eleven this night, at St. George's Quay, Dublin; a very extraordinary instance of quick travelling.

His serene highness the queen's youngest brother is now in England, and has been to visit the universities of Cambridge and Oxford, where he was received with all the honours due to his high rank, and his near relation to their majesties.

5th. Ended the Sessions at the Old Bailey, at which twelve criminals received sentence of death, viz. four for burglaries, five for highway and foot robberies, one for stealing a cow, one for returning from transportation, and one for forgery. Of these, one died in prison, seven suffered soon after, and the rest were reprieved for transportation. Among those reprieved for transportation was the unhappy youth cast for forgery, who obtained mercy in consideration of his having greatly contributed to save a ship overtaken by a dreadful storm last winter, in her passage from Park-gate to Dublin, with two hundred persons on board, and a rich cargo. Thirty-four were sentenced to transportation for seven years, three for fourteen, one to be publicly,

and seven privately whipt, and one was burnt in the hand.

The criminal condemned for returning from transportation at this sessions, and afterwards executed, addressed himself to the populace at Tyburn, and told them he could wish they would carry his body, and lay it at the door of Mr. Parker, a butcher, in the Minories, who, it seems, was the principal evidence against him; which being accordingly done, the mob behaved so riotously before the man's house, that it was no easy matter to disperse them.

At this sessions were likewise tried four chairmen, for forcibly breaking into the Morocco ambassador's house, with a large mob at their heels, and their violently attacking the ambassador himself, on pretence that he kept one of their wives from her husband. But through the great lenity, it is imagined, of his excellency, they had all the good fortune to be acquitted.

At the rehearsal and feast of the sons of the clergy, 10th. 932l. 7s. 3d. was collected for that charity.

A great disturbance was created at Ranelagh-house, 11th. by the coachmen, footmen, &c. belonging to such of the nobility and gentry as will not suffer their servants to take vails. They began by hissing their masters, they then broke all the lamps and outside windows with stones; and afterwards putting out their flambeaux, pelted the company in a most audacious manner, with brick-bats, &c. whereby several were greatly hurt, so as to render the use of swords necessary. In

in the scuffle one of the servants was run through his thigh, another through his arm, and several more otherwise wounded. Four of them were seized, and being carried before the justices, one was committed to Newgate; one discharged by his master, and bound to his good behaviour; one set at liberty, on his asking pardon, and promising to discover his accomplices; and one discharged, no person appearing against him.

14th. A cause, of great consequence to the insurers, was heard before lord chief justice Pratt, between the owners of the brig George, of Liverpool, plaintiffs, and the under writers of a policy of insurance upon her, with convoy, defendants. The point in question was, whether voluntarily leaving convoy, and not coming to the usual places of rendezvous, be a sufficient plea for the insurers to withhold the benefit of the policy: which being determined in the affirmative; and it being likewise proved that the captain of the George did voluntarily leave the convoy, and did not rendezvous at the appointed place, but was taken out of that course; the jury, which was special, gave a verdict for the defendants, with full costs of suit.

15th. A gentleman of fortune, in the city, was on the point of losing his only child by the overpowering scent of several jars filled with flowers, which she had placed in her bed-chamber. She awaked almost suffocated, and unable to speak for some time, and found the servant who lay on a couch near her, also

awake, and in the same condition; the violent smell of so many flowers having filled the room with a faint vapour, which was insupportable. The servant, at last, with great difficulty, and after many efforts, roused up strength sufficient to crawl towards the jars, and put them out of the room, which being filled with fresh air by the opening of the door, she, and her mistress now almost expiring, soon recovered. Something like this is said to have lately happened at Wittenberg.

At the anniversary feast and sermon for the benefit of the Asylum, 1801. odd was collected for the benefit of that charity. 16th.

His excellency the lord lieutenant of Ireland, having put an end to the sessions of parliament there on the 12th, arrived with his countess from Ireland. Soon after they waited on their majesties, and were most graciously received. 17th.

The cordwainers company heard a sermon at St. Dunstan's in the West, and afterwards dined together, pursuant to the will of Mr. Fisher, who having been sometimes invited to their feasts, left them in return an estate, on condition of hearing annually a sermon, drinking sack in the church to his memory, giving a certain sum to the poor, treating their tenants, and dining jovially together.

Came on before lord chief justice Mansfield, at Westminster hall, the trial of Philip Carteret Webb, esq; solicitor to the Treasury, for perjury, when the

the jury, which was a special one, after an absence of half an hour, brought in their verdict, Not Guilty.

In consequence of the prudent measures now taking by the lords of the admiralty, the state of the British navy is in a way of being vastly superior to what it has ever as yet been. Exclusive of a thorough survey of all his majesty's ships of war, contracts have been entered into with every province, island, and settlement in America, for supplying such men of war as may touch there with provisions, rigging, and all manner of naval stores, on any emergency; so that, there being contracts of the same kind in most foreign states of Europe, let a king's ship put in any where, she is sure of being immediately provided with every thing she can want.

A table spoon and a small spoon having been lately missed from a public house at Limehouse, a servant girl was taken into custody on suspicion of stealing the same; but the third day after her confinement, a raven was seen to carry a tea-spoon to the bottom of the ground, and bury it in a lay-stall, where, upon digging, all three were found, with some shillings and half-pence, on which the girl was discharged.

At a late foot race on the Deptford road by two tanners, the winner ran nine miles in an hour and four minutes.

There has been lately executed at York a newly invented seed plough, firm, but not heavy, going on two wheels, to be drawn by one or two horses occasionally; which makes three seed-furrows at

once, at any distance from each other, and sows any sort of seed, and covers it at the same time, with great expedition and exactness.

A playhouse has been lately built at Glasgow, but has already been disapproved of by the presbytery there; and the ministers in general have been instructed to dissuade their hearers from frequenting it, as prejudicial to the interests of piety and virtue.

The citizens of Corke have placed a fine white marble statue of Mr. Pitt, as big as life, in a niche in their Exchange, with the following inscriptions:

“ In honour of Mr. Pitt, late secretary and minister of state to their majesties king George II. and III. of Great Britain, who, in the few years of his able and upright administration, restored the honour of the British arms, together with the safety, influence, and glory of his king and country, this statue is erected by the citizens of Corke, Anno 1764.” This is on one plate. On another is the following: “ *Siste, viator, ubicunque terrarum oriundus. Vera Icon GULIELMI PITT, cujus si nomen audies, nihil hic de fama desideres.*”

The present grand topic of discourse at the Hague, is the wonderful feats of one Mr. Gilbert Gilbert, who was a cannoneer in the service of the republic, and had the misfortune to lose both his arms. This gentleman has been furnished, by the chevalier de Laurent, a French engineer, with two artificial arms fixed to his stumps, with which he is able to carry a glass of wine to his head, use his knife and fork, take snuff,

snuff, and write. All this he has done in the presence of the stadtholder and the great council. He has been since invited to Utrecht, and is visited there at his apartment by persons of the first distinction, all of whom applaud extremely this wonderful and useful piece of mechanism.

The magistrates of Francfort on the Mayne, at the request of the king of Prussia, have permitted the inhabitants professing the Reformed religion to build a church near the ramparts of that city.

The practice of rocking children to sleep has been lately exploded in Germany. This motion, says a learned physician, must injure the delicate texture of their brain, spoil their digestion, turn the milk in their stomachs, make them squeamish, and occasion many disorders in the bowels, to which, therefore, it is no wonder children are now so subject.

A curious medal has lately been struck at Stockholm, in honour of inoculation; it represents an altar of Æsculapius, with a serpent twisted round it; the motto, SVBLATO JVRE NOCENDI.

Paris, May 11. The court of England having consented to communicate to our's the different records and instruments concerning the rights, domains, and possessions of the crown, which are in the archives of the exchequer, the king has nominated M. de Brequignèy, of the royal academy of belles-lettres, to go to take copies of them, and he is accordingly set out for that purpose.

Four pieces of cannon, lately fished up in La Hogue road, were found covered with a thick incrustation of mud, under which

the metal was at first as imcompressible as pewter; but being exposed to the action of the air for twenty-four hours, it hardened again so as to bear the strongest proofs.

The subject of the prize proposed by our academy of sciences for 1765, is, What were the exterior marks, ornaments, and apparel of royalty among the Egyptians? And what the state of the Egyptian army, their rank, cloathing, arms, and exercise?

That for 1766, is to explain the cause of the inequalities observed in the movements and nodes of the orbits of Jupiter's satellites.

Berlin, May 11th. The king is indefatigable in his attention to the welfare of his subjects. A new regulation is made concerning the schools, which is esteemed a master-piece. The edict on the observation of the sabbath is renewed, whereby working, diversion in carriages, or on the water, and frequenting public houses, on Sundays and holidays, are forbidden under the severest penalties. The justices of the peace are once a month to give an account of the behaviour of the inhabitants, to be signed by the minister of the place, which is to be transmitted to the chamber of war and domains, who are to lay it before the king.

M. Gleditch has lately presented to the royal academy his observations upon the artificial method of increasing the fecundity of salmon and trouts, invented by Mr. Jacobi. This secret consists in taking the males and females of each sort, until the one discharges the melt, and the other the
roe

roe, both of which are to be mingled together, and thrown into the fish-pond. This operation may be repeated several times in a year, and at each time may be performed six days successively on the same fish.

M. Castillion has laid before the same academy an authentic account received from Surinam, of a negro, perfectly white, born of a father and mother of the blackest hue; as also an account of a whole family of negroes, not far from the town of Parimaribo, born with four fingers without a thumb, and whose feet assume, where the toes usually begin, the form of a lobster's claw.

One Healyer, a taylor, at Tiverton, near Bath, about 90 years of age, has cut five teeth within this fortnight; and it is imagined he will have a complete set in less than a month, as he cuts them with pain.

Died lately. Mendez de Costa, esq; an eminent Jew merchant, who annually allotted 3000 l. the amount of his commissions, to private charity, and by a codicil to his will has ordered it to be continued by his executors during the lives of those indigent families who heretofore shared his bounty. He has besides ordered that all private bonds in his hands at the time of his death, with their securities, should be immediately destroyed, on this generous principle, that those who borrowed must be in want. This gentleman's charities were not confined to any country or religion.

John Rogers, a Chelsea pensioner, aged 103.

Robert Maber, of Frampton in Dorsetshire, aged 104.

Margaret Cooper, of Deskie in Scotland, aged 105.

Mrs. Edwards, of Tooting, aged 108.

Faith Ginger, of Wangrave, Bucks, aged 108.

Mr. Brett, of Mallow in Ireland, aged 115.

In the island of Funen, belonging to the king of Denmark, a man at the extraordinary age of 141 years, wanting three days.

J U N E.

Mr. Arnold, of Devereux court in the Strand, watch-maker, had the honour to present his majesty with a most curious repeating watch of his own constructing, set in a ring; of which the following are the particulars: The movement complete is 2 dwts. 2 grs. and an 8th of a grain. Great wheel and fusee, 2 gr. 3-4ths. Second wheel and pinion, 3-4ths of a gr. Barrel and main spring, 3 gr. and an half. Third wheel and pinion, a 9th part of a gr. Fourth wheel and pinion, a 10th part of a gr. Cylinder wheel and pinion, a 16th part of a gr. Balance, pendulum, cylinder spring and collet, 2-3ds of a gr. The pendulum spring, 300th part of a gr. The chain, 1-half of a gr. Barrel and main spring, 1 gr. and 3 grs. Great wheel and rotchet, 1 gr. Second wheel and pinion, 7th part of a gr.

Third

Third wheel and pinion, 3th part of a gr.

Fourth wheel and pinion, 9th part of a gr.

Fly wheel and pinion, 17th of a gr.

Fly pinion, 20th part of a gr.

Hour hammer, 1-half of a gr.

Quarter hammer, 1-half of a gr.

Rack, chain, and pully, 1 gr. and 1-3d.

Quarter and half quarter rack, 2-3ds of a gr.

The quarter and half quarter snail and cannon pinion, 2-3ds of a gr.

The all or nothing piece, 1-half of a gr.

Two motion wheels, 1 gr.

Steel dial plate with gold figures, 3 grs. and a half.

The hour snail and star, 1-half of a gr. and the 16th part of a gr.

The size of the watch is something less than a silver two-pence; it contains one hundred and twenty different parts, and all together weigh no more than 5 dwts, 7 grs. and 3-4ths.

Some time ago the royal academy of Paris was presented with a repeating clock, which strikes the hours and quarters, with only a single striking wheel; the inventor rejecting two thirds of the pieces contained in the striking part of the ordinary repetition clock. And his most christian majesty has been since presented by Mr. Coupson, jun. a watchmaker of Paris, with a new watch of his invention, composed of five wheels, like common watches; but the author has substituted for the barrel, the grand spring, the chain, and the fusee, a simple spring, which alone produces the same effect as do those different pieces, and without the inconveniencies attending them. It requires no winding up, but may

be set in motion for twenty-four hours by a push, just as the striking springs of common repeating watches are wound up.

Some grand illuminations, designed by the earl and countess of Northumberland, as a compliment to his majesty's birth-day, were exhibited this evening; the garden was decorated with 10,000 lamps, and 400 were fixed to the balustrades descending by the steps, which had a most beautiful effect; two bands of music were provided, one in the great gallery, which was illuminated with an astonishing degree of splendor; the other in the garden; each answered the other alternately. The company consisted of fifteen hundred persons of the first distinction.

A remarkable cause was tried before lord chief justice 5th. Mansfield, in which Charles Darley was plaintiff, and a captain of one of his majesty's frigates defendant. The cause of action was the defendant's neglecting to rate the plaintiff as quarter-master on board the said frigate, by which neglect he was excluded from sharing prize money in the *Hermione* in the proportion he ought to have done. He obtained a verdict in his favour with 500 l. damages.

A cause came on, in the 8th. court of common pleas, Westminster-hall, before lord chief justice Pratt, wherein Mr. Blackstone of Covent-garden was plaintiff, and one of those young gentlemen stiled Bucks defendant, for assaulting Mr. Blackstone in his own shop; when, after two or three evidences were examined, the defendant, by his council, offered to ask pardon in the open court, and pay costs. It was then asked Mr. Black-

Blackstone, if that would be making him satisfaction.—But as the outrage was so great, and attended with bad consequences to Mr. Blackstone's wife, he told the court, that he came there as an Englishman, and was desirous it might be made appear that our laws were made to protect the innocent, and punish the guilty, and that he, therefore, chose to submit his cause to the verdict of his twelve countrymen, the jury. Accordingly, after the charge was given by the judge, the jury, which was special, withdrew for about ten minutes, and brought in a verdict of 200 l. damages, with costs.

9th. The galleon Santissima Trinidad, from the East Indies, arrived in Plymouth road. She is the largest and richest ship ever brought into the ports of England. She was loaded at Madras with a vast collection made by governor Pigot of foreign curiosities, particularly wild beasts, most of which died in the passage, it being so very long, and the ship so very laboursome. One of those which has survived is a serpent, which is, it is said, fourteen feet long, eats only once a month, and then changes its skin, and, as some say, is quite harmless.

The society for the encouragement of arts, &c. have lately bestowed the following premiums, viz.

Thirty guineas to Mr. Keyse, an eminent painter in Fleet-street, for the discovery of a method to fix crayons, so as to stand even a severe rubbing of soap and water.

Ten guineas to one Mr. Ringrose, for a new improvement in agriculture.

Ten guineas to a gentlewoman, for an improvement in manufactures, by finishing a piece of lace

in a very elegant manner with knitting needles.

Ended the sessions at the Old Bailey, when one malefactor received sentence of death for murder, one for personating a sailor in order to receive his wages, and three for other crimes. The murderer and two others were executed. Thirty-five to be transported for seven years, and one to be whipped. Three were branded.

Happened in and about London one of the greatest thunder storms in the memory of man. Some buildings suffered by it, particularly the elegant spire of St. Bride's, Fleet-street, which was shattered so much, that it was obliged to be rebuilt. Several balls of fire were seen in the streets at the same time, but soon disappeared without doing any mischief. Some persons, however, were hurt by the stones that flew from the damaged buildings. At Chatham the lightning killed one man, hurt some others, and had it not been for a heavy rain that attended it, would probably have set the Ramillies man of war on fire. In London there was no rain till the lightning was over.

A constable attempting to execute, in the court yard of a foreign minister, a warrant against one of his domestics, for a breach of the peace, was some time confined in the minister's house, but had satisfaction made him; and the domestic was delivered up to the civil power, to be dealt with according to law.

Was executed at Guildhall, before Mr. Bennett, secondary of Wood-street comptroller, a writ of inquiry of damages, in an action of trespass, wherein Mess. Wilson and

and Fell, two bookfellers in Pater-noster row, some time since imprisoned for printing some numbers of the Monitor, were plaintiffs, and three of his majesty's messengers defendants; when, after many learned arguments by the counsel on both sides, the jury, to compose which one person was summoned out of each ward in this city, withdrew, and in about forty minutes brought in the damages at 600 l.

The fourteen journeymen printers, who some months ago obtained a verdict against the king's messengers for false imprisonment, on account of the North Briton, No 45, were prevailed on to accept their money of Mess. Nathan. Carrington and R. Blackmore, two messengers, in manner following: thirteen of them, who had 200 l. costs and damages decreed them, accepted 120 l. each, and one of them, who had 300 l. decreed him, accepted 175 l. and all agreed to pay their own costs.

23d. A violent storm of hail, rain, thunder, and lightning, did immense damage in Middlesex, Berkshire, Wilts, Yorkshire, Durham, Oxfordshire, Gloucestershire, Essex, Bucks, Worcestershire, Hants, &c. to the buildings and fruits of the earth, and several lives were lost thereby. The hail-stones in some places were an inch and a quarter long, three quarters of an inch broad, and half an inch thick. The damage sustained in Berkshire alone is estimated at 20,000 l. This storm was likewise severely felt at Doway in France, where the hail-stones were as big as hens eggs, and did proportionable mischief. At Heidelberg it was still more

dreadful, and the lightning set fire to the electoral palace, great part of which was consumed.

The king has lately received a letter written with the emperor of Morocco's own hand, insisting, it is said, that a ship belonging to Marsh Holud, brother to the dey of Algiers, having been cast away on the British coast, and the cargo lost, the whole value of the said cargo should be made good to the sufferers.

Mr. and Mrs. Liddal, at 25th. the Green Dragon at Harrowgate, took the fitch of bacon oath at Dunmow in Essex, taken notice of by the Spectator; when the gentlemen of the neighbourhood, to celebrate so unusual an instance of conjugal felicity, sent in each some elegant or plentiful dish, and all dined together in the house of the happy couple.

The court of common 27th. pleas was moved to increase issues, on the return of the Distringas issued at the suit of Mr. Beardmore's clerk against the earl of Halifax, when the court was pleased to order 500 l. issues on the Alias distringas; it appearing by affidavit, that, though this action had been commenced for near twelve months, no appearance had yet been entered for the defendant.

The executors of Jennix 30th. Dry, esq; have paid the treasurers of St. Thomas's, St. Bartholomew's, St. Luke's, and the London hospitals, and likewise those of the London work-house, 200 l. to each, pursuant to the will of the deceased, being a part only of the testator's personal estate, which he bequeathed wholly to the use of the said hospitals and work-house.

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And

And the executors of the late Dr. Osbaldiston, bishop of London, have paid into the hands of the treasurer of the society for propagating the gospel in foreign parts, the sum of 500 l. bequeathed to them by his lordship; who has also left 200 l. for the relief of poor clergymen's widows, and 1000 l. for repairing the episcopal palace at Fulham.

A small piece of ground in Piccadilly, bought some years ago when a field for 30 l. by a brewer, as a waste place to put his butts in, &c. was lately sold for the benefit of his son, an orphan, for the sum of 2500 l. so greatly is that part of the town improved even in the memory of man.

In the course of this month there arrived various accounts of our logwood cutters in the bay of Honduras having been not only disturbed in their business, but ordered to remove suddenly from their usual places of settlement, on pretence of their having nothing to prove their being subjects to his Britannic majesty; and granting they were, that they had roved too freely about the country, gathering the fruits of it as if it belonged to them. These proceedings were made an ample fund of declamation by the party writers, who failed not to represent them in lights no way favourable to the wisdom of our own, or the sincerity of the Spanish court; whereas, by two articles in the London Gazette it is probable, that the whole was owing to too great attention to forms in the Spanish commanders in that part of the world, and too little, perhaps, in our logwood cutters; neither of which, if we consider the characters

of the parties, can be any matter of surprise. The articles above referred to are as follows: St. James's, July 21. In answer to the representations made by his majesty's ambassador at the court of Madrid, upon the late transactions of their governor of Yucatan, and his proceedings towards the British subjects employed in cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras, the Spanish ministry have replied, that they have not received any advices from that governor relative to this affair; but that it is certain the catholic king has given positive orders to his governor of Yucatan to abide by and observe the XVIIth article of the last treaty of peace, and that he will not approve of the conduct of his subjects who act in contravention to it. That it is the intention of his catholic majesty, that no one shall impede the English in their cutting logwood in the stipulated places; and he will disapprove of his governors and ministers, whenever they act to the contrary; and renew the most strict orders to that effect. St. James's, Sept. 28. Last night one of his majesty's messengers arrived from Madrid, with dispatches from his majesty's ambassador at that court, transmitting a duplicate of the orders, which, in consequence of his excellency's late remonstrances, that court has dispatched to don Felipe Ramirez de Estenoz, governor of Yucatan: in which orders, his catholic majesty disapproves the proceedings of the said governor, with respect to his majesty's subjects in the bay of Honduras; expresses his desire of giving his majesty the greatest proofs of his friendship, and of pre-

preserving peace with the British nation; and commands the said governor to re-establish the British logwood cutters in the several places from which he had obliged them to retire, and to let them know, that they may return to their occupation of cutting logwood, without being disquieted or disturbed under any pretence whatsoever.

The beginning of this year a terrible famine broke out in several parts of Italy, particularly the kingdom of Naples, and the ecclesiastical state, and was followed by a great mortality, particularly in the former, owing more to the use of bad corn sent them from other countries, than even the want of good corn, insomuch that, by the advice of the physicians, vast quantities of it were thrown into the sea at some leagues from Naples, it being so far gone as to occasion a fatal and infectious disorder even among the poultry who partook of it. On this occasion, the king of Spain shewed great tenderness for his former subjects, sending them wheat, flour, and biscuit, to answer their most pressing wants; and the pope gave leave, with the advice of the cardinals, to take out of the castle of St. Angelo 300,000 crowns, part of the vast treasure deposited there by Sixtus Quintus, to be touched only in the most pressing exigencies. The corn imported into the kingdom of Naples alone, on this occasion, is said to have amounted to close upon thirty thousand tons; notwithstanding which, there perished there upwards of 500,000 souls in less than six months, and a proportionable number in the

papal territories. As great part of the corn thrown into the sea on this melancholy occasion has been positively asserted, in letters from Naples, to have been bought up in England, it seems, if not proper to vindicate the nation's justice, honour, and humanity, by inquiring into past frauds in that important trade, at least high time to make such regulations as may prevent such abuses for the future.

The last Dutch East India ships, which arrived in Holland from Batavia, brought letters from Cassambazar, giving an account, that in March 1763, a most violent fire happened at Moxudabath, which had reduced that place to ashes. And that on the 2d of April following there was such a vehement earthquake at Deher or Decca, that it caused the water in the river Ganges to rise twenty feet above its common level, and agitated it in the same way as it is at new and full moon. Upwards of 500 vessels with provisions, and a great number of people's lives, were lost; but the most shocking and dismal part of the account is, that at Lockepoer, about two days journey from Decca, a circuit of land, near fifteen English miles in circumference, was swallowed up, and all the people and cattle on it were drowned.

Lisbon, June 10. On the 2d inst. a fire broke out in our custom-house, containing to the amount of above half a million sterling, and the building being of wood, erected in a hurry after the late dreadful earthquake, and little assistance at hand, it being a holiday (Holy Thursday), the flames spread so rapidly, as to elude all

the efforts made to extinguish them. The fire is thought, with the greatest probability, to have been occasioned by some bales of wet Hamburgh linen heating, and taking fire of themselves, as ill-saved hay is apt to do; notwithstanding which, and his most faithful majesty's renouncing all duties and drawbacks upon what was saved, the merchants complain loudly, as, ever since the running up of this combustible edifice, they have paid a duty of four per cent. on all their goods towards building one of more solid materials.

Warsaw, June 2. On the 30th ult. the diet declared the investiture of prince Charles of Saxony, in 1758, to the government of Courland, null and void, acknowledged Ernest John the lawful duke, and resolved that the ducal dignity should be permanent in the Biron family, as long as it should have male issue.

Jamaica, April 10. By orders lately received here for swearing in all the men of war's officers on this station, as custom-house officers, and by a seizure or two made in consequence thereof, the Spaniards are so terrified, that they will not run the risk of bringing hither either money or mules to traffick with us, so that a pistole is now rarely to be met with; and, in a very short time, this island, which always abounded with Spanish coin, and remitted such quantities of it to England, will have no other currency than paper money. The Spaniards will very soon be supplied with linens, woollens, silks, cutlery, &c. from the French and Dutch territories, who will probably know how to set a

true value on this branch of trade, and take care how to keep it.

Philadelphia, April 1. There have been lately warmer disputes than ever between our governor and assembly concerning the proprietary interest in this province, particularly the assessing of located uncultivated lands and lots, within towns and boroughs belonging to the proprietors. Our governor, agreeable to a decree of his majesty, is for assessing these lands and lots at the lowest rate at which any located uncultivated lands belonging to the inhabitants are assessed. The assembly thinks it unfair to the last degree, that the best and most valuable of the proprietary lands and lots should be taxed no higher than the worst and least valuable of the people's lands; and, in consequence of their opinion upon this and other topics in dispute, have come to several resolutions bearing very hard on the proprietary administration: the last of which is:

“As all hope of any degree of happiness under the proprietary government is, in our opinion, now at an end;

“Resolved, *nem con.* That this house will adjourn, in order to consult their constituents, whether an humble address should be drawn up, and transmitted to his majesty, praying that he would be graciously pleased to take the people of this province under his immediate protection and government; by completing the agreement heretofore made with the first proprietor for the sale of the government to the crown, or otherwise, as to his wisdom and goodness

ness shall seem meet."—There has been likewise such a misunderstanding between the governor and assembly of South Carolina, as to put an entire stop for some time to all public business in that colony.

There is now living at the quarry-houses near Winlaton, in the parish of Royton, and county of Durham, one Cuthbert Downy, who hath six toes upon each foot, and had six fingers upon one hand, but one was cut off by a surgeon when he was an infant. He is only nine years and three quarters old, yet is four feet four inches high, and, as his parents say, weighs above seven stone. The smallest part of his leg above the ankle is eight inches and three quarters about; under the knee, eleven inches and three quarters; above the knee, twelve inches and seven - eights; the wrist seven inches; and his body, under his coat, below the shoulders, thirty-three inches about. It is not so much his fatness that makes him to be of this size, as the largeness of his bones, which resemble those of a middling well-grown man. He is a very fair complexioned, healthy-looking, sprightly boy, and has something very majestic in his countenance, but is a little unwieldy in his walk.

Died lately. The celebrated count Algarotti, gentleman of the bedchamber to his Prussian majesty, F. R. S. &c. at Pisa. He has bequeathed by his will a very fine picture to the king of Prussia; a porto folio of choice original designs, an engraved stone, and two pictures, to Mr. William Pitt; and a considerable sum to the printing-house at Leghorn,

to enable them to proceed with the new edition of his works: he has also devised a legacy to the marquis de Monti, lieut. general of the armies of France; and has left M. Mauro Tefsi, a celebrated painter at Bologna, 8000 Roman crowns, 2000 of which he has directed to be laid out in the erection of a mausoleum to his own memory at Pisa. He has given the design of this monument himself, and also left his own epitaph, borrowed from Horace, which is as follows: HIC JACET ALGAROTTIUS, SED NON OMNIS.

J U L Y.

Came on, by information, the trial of the chevalier M. 9th. d'Eon, late plenipotentiary of the court of France, for a supposed libel against the present French ambassador count de Guerchy, before a special jury of the county of Middlesex, in the king's bench, Westminster; when the defendant, not thinking proper to make any defence, was found guilty.

This gentleman, at the time of his first coming over to England, was captain of dragoons in the French service, and secretary to the duke de Nivernois, in which character he behaved so much to the duke's satisfaction, that that nobleman, upon his departure for France, got M. d'Eon appointed minister plenipotentiary in his room.

In a little time after, however, the count de Guerchy being appointed ambassador from the court of Versailles, the chevalier d'Eon received orders, or rather was requested, to act as secretary or as-

sistant to the new ambassador. This, it seems, mortified the chevalier to such a degree, that, pretending the letter of recal, which accompanied it, was a forgery, as a correspondent and intimate friend of his, and an intimate friend likewise and neighbour of the French prime minister, gave him no notice of it, he absolutely refused to deliver it, and thereby drew on himself the censure of ours and his own court, as mentioned in our last year's Chronicle.

Upon this, the chevalier, with a view of exculpating himself, or from a motive of revenge, or perhaps both, published a succinct account of all the negotiations in which he had been engaged, exposed some secrets of the French court, and rather than spare his enemies, revealed some things greatly to the prejudice of his best friends. Among other persons very freely treated in this publication was the count de Guerchy; and it was this treatment that drew on him the foregoing prosecution for a libel on his excellency.

It was but natural, that this behaviour should draw on M. d'Eon the resentment of the court of France, or, at least, that the chevalier should apprehend it. Whether or no, therefore, that court solicited his being given up, which is very probable; reports were spread, not only that it had done so, but even had, on being refused, sent over persons to kidnap the chevalier, and carry him off by force or fraud, since it could not come at him by fair means.

If the chevalier himself was not the author of these reports, he, at least, credited them so far, that

he wrote four letters to complain of these designs against him, as known to him by undoubted authority; one to lord chief justice Mansfield, another to lord Bute, a third to lord Temple, and a fourth to Mr. Pitt; and to ask their advice, if, as he contracted no debts, and behaved himself in all things as a dutiful subject, he might not kill the first man who should attempt to arrest him, since he could not consider such arrest in any other light than a design to kidnap him; weakly alledging, that were the laws to condemn him for so doing, which he could not, he said, conceive, the spirit of them must feel the stroke. But, if he really knew, from undoubted authority, that there was a design against his person, and the villains intrusted with the execution of that design, he might easily have prevented it, and in a legal way, by an information against them.

What became of the chevalier after his trial, is not known. About four months after, a house in Scotland yard was forcibly ransacked for him, and in doing it a door broke open by six persons, some of them well known, in consequence, they said, of orders from above; a thing not at all improbable, considering into what misdemeanours, it is reasonable to think, the chevalier's indiscretion, and ignorance of our laws, might have betrayed him; misdemeanours, perhaps, sufficient to justify even more violent proceedings in searching for, and apprehending, the person guilty of them.

At a house at Merryman's Hill, is a young cuckow, 12th. but bigger than a grown blackbird, which is several times a day fed by a robin,

a robin, that hatched it about five weeks ago; an old cuckow having laid an egg in the robin's nest. The cuckow is in a cage placed within doors near an open window, at which the robin, which is at large, comes in to feed it, unterrified by the number of persons who crowd to so unusual a sight.

Mr. Dun, whom we mentioned in our account of Mr. Wilkes's affair in our last volume, has given so many and such strong proofs of insanity in the several jails where he was confined, in consequence of his supposed intention to assassinate that gentleman, that, the prosecution against him being dropt, he was delivered up to his friends, who have provided for him in a private mad-house.

20th Came on, in the court of common pleas, Westminster, before the right hon. lord chief justice Pratt, a trial, wherein the reverend Mr. Entick was plaintiff, and several of his majesties messengers were defendants, in an action against the latter, for forcibly entering the said plaintiff's house, seizing his papers, and keeping him in custody several days; when, after a trial of four hours, the jury, after being gone out an hour, brought in a verdict of 300*l.* damages, with costs of suit.

At Philadelphia, forty minutes past seven in the evening, about two miles and a half south-west of that city, a ball of fire was seen near the north-east, about fifty degrees above the horizon. It took its course near north-west, its diameter at times considerably bigger than that of the sun,

especially at one time, when it opened as if about to divide. It appeared like a large flaming sheet of fire, inclining together like the flower leaves of a new blown rose. The sound it made in its motion, which was very swift, resembled that of a great fire urged by a strong wind. It kept near one height all the way, till it crossed the meridian to the north about twenty degrees, where was a small cloud which seemed to attack it. It then mounted higher, and just as it seemed to touch the outward edge of the cloud, broke into thousands of pieces, like those fiery ones observed in the springing of a mine. It had something exceedingly remarkable in its center, that resembled a glowing hot bar of iron, spitting and sparkling as the main body moved. About thirty seconds of time after its breaking, was heard a report, like the firing of a large cannon, only that the sound of it lasted about one minute.

Came on at Guildhall, before lord chief justice Mansfield, and a special jury, the trial of Mr. Williams, for re-publishing the North Briton, N^o 45, when the jury, after a long hearing, and being out near two hours, brought in their verdict, (not generally, but) Guilty of re-publishing the North Briton, N^o 45.

Mr. Kearfly's trial came on immediately after, for the original publication of the same paper, and the jury brought in their verdict, Guilty.

It is observable, that this is the seventh prosecution for libels by information in the court of the king's bench, since Christmas last, viz.

[G] 4

1. Mr.

1. Mr. Wilkes, for republishing the North Briton, N^o 45. in volumes.

2. Mr. Wilkes, for printing the Essay on Woman.

3. Mr. Corbet, for an advertisement in the Whitehall evening post.

4. The chevalier d'Eon, for publishing a book in French, intituled, Lettres, Memoires, & Negotiations.

5. Mr. Wilkes, for originally publishing the North Briton, N^o 45.

6. Mr. Williams, for republishing the same in volumes.

7. Mr. Kearsly, for publishing the same paper separately.

All of which, except the fifth, which was always considered as the principal, were tried before lord Mansfield.

28th. Ended the sessions at the Old Bailey, when a woman, for robbing a child of 3 l. 12 s. 8 d. one man, for personating a sailor, and receiving his prize-money, and two for a highway robbery, received sentence of death, which the three men suffered. Forty were sentenced to be transported for seven years, two for fourteen years; four were burnt in the hand, and four ordered to be whipped.

31st. The corporation of London have agreed that the following inscription shall be put at the bottom of the frame of the picture of the right honourable lord chief justice Pratt, which is soon to be placed in Guildhall:

Hanc Iconem Caroli Pratt, eq. summi judicis C. B. in honorem tanti viri Anglicæ libertatis lege assertoris fidi, S. P. Q. L. in curia municipali poni jussèrunt nono kal. Mar. A. D. 1764. Gulielmo Bridgen arm. Præt. Urb.

The late right hon. lady Elizabeth Hastings has, by a codicil to her will, bequeathed to the provost and college of Queen's college, Oxford, the sum of 140 l. per ann. payable out of the manor of Wheldale in Yorkshire, for the educating of five poor boys at the said college, to be chosen from twelve country schools, named by her ladyship. They are to be allowed 20 l. per ann. each, for the first four years, and 60 l. for the fifth year, provided they stay in the college.

Part of the celebrated Kensington collection of paintings is now removed to Hampton Court, and form a principal ornament of that noble palace. Among these are the nine muses, and Esther and Ahasuerus, by Tintoret; two shepherds offerings to our Saviour and the woman of Samaria, by old Palma; the deluge, by Bassan; the story of Midas, by Andrea Sciaconi; the famous holy family, by Rubens; the equestrian pictures of king Charles, by Vandyke, and of the duke of Alva, by Rubens.

An oak was lately felled near Framlingham, the body of which was perfectly sound, and contained 13 loads 35 feet of timber, 5 loads of wrongs (pieces not less than six inches girt) 5 loads of round wood, with faggots and other small wood in proportion.

An earthen pot, full of silver Roman coin, was lately found by a labouring man in digging on Warminster common.

The first barrel of herrings, that arrived this year in Holland from the Shetland fishery, sold for 54 l. and the rest of the jagger's cargo at 25 l. the small barrel.

Versailles, June 20. This morning

ing the king's council quashed two arrets, one of the parliament of Grenoble, and the other of that of Rouen, by virtue of which two persons have been broken on the wheel, who have since been found to be innocent, by the confession of the real criminals. The fate of the East-India company is likewise decided. It is to be kept up. The king makes the company a gift of 12,000 actions which belong to him; but withdraws the isles of France and Bourbon, which are henceforth to belong to the department of the marine, in regard to government and commerce, like all the other colonies. The company is to enjoy an exclusive trade to India, and is to be authorised to make a call of 400 livres per action; the dividend is to be raised to 80 livres for those who furnish 400 livres; and such proprietors as do not answer this call to forfeit their right.

Some experiments to render seawater fresh, made by the count d'Estaing in his voyage to St. Domingo, have proved so successful, that the king has been induced to give orders for fixing machines for this purpose on board all the men of war, and other ships that go long voyages, in order to provide against the dreadful calamities so often arising from the want of fresh water.

By an extract of a letter from the comte de Tresan, member of our royal academy of sciences, to M. Morand of the same academy, we are informed of the death of Bebe, the king of Poland's famous dwarf. Bebe was the issue of two healthy, well-made, labouring people. His mother reared him with great difficulty, his mouth

being so small, that he could only take in part of her nipple. A wooden shoe served him for a long time by way of cradle; and his growth to the age of 12 was in proportion to his original littleness. At that age nature seemed to make an effort; but this effort was not uniform, his growth being unequal in many parts; his nose in particular was disproportioned to the rest of his features. Bebe gave very imperfect marks of understanding, and had no notion of the Supreme Being, or the immortality of the soul; he seemed to be fond of music, and beat time with tolerable exactness. He was susceptible of all the passions incident to human nature, such as anger, jealousy, &c. At the age of eighteen, the signs of puberty were very visible, and Bebe was so amorously inclined, that he is said to have anticipated old age by the indulgence of this propensity; for he began to decline from two and twenty, and actually died of old age before he was thirty. On dissecting him the anatomists discovered many obstructions, sufficient to account for the stoppage of his growth.

Freyburg, July 12. The day before yesterday a fire broke out here, by which 124 dwelling houses, besides public edifices, were reduced to ashes.

Copenhagen, July 7. The ports of our two islands of St. Thomas and St. John, in America, have been declared free, on the following conditions:

1. No European merchandizes shall be carried thither, except in his Danish majesty's European ships, which shall be furnished with passports. Two per cent. of the

the value to be paid on importation. All American productions to be admitted in ships of any nation, paying five per cent. of the usual duty; and these vessels may export any goods duty free. But it is forbid all vessels to go from these islands to St. Croix, to take a cargo in return.

2. No productions, imported into these islands, shall be brought to Europe but in Danish ships which had first carried goods with passports; and these to unload only in Denmark or the Danish provinces.

3. These foreign productions shall be exempted from foreign duty, but those of the growth of St. Thomas and St. John are to pay five per cent.

4. Frauds shall be punished by confiscation, and a fine of five rix-dollars for every quintal of sugar, and twenty rix-dollars for every 100lb. of cotton, over and above the duties.

5. Foreign sugars brought from these islands to the Danish states shall remain only till they can be exported again, paying one per cent. duty.

Rome, July 1. A sepulchral monument, or columbarium (as the antiquarians term it), has been lately discovered in a vineyard belonging to prince Corsini, which is situated without the gate anciently called Aurelia. The vault was adorned with landscapes and views in perspective, and the walls divided into niches, in which several urns were placed to receive the ashes of the dead. A great number of funeral lamps of curious workmanship, representing several subjects of mythology, were found here, together with two exquisite

pieces of sculpture, in the finest Grecian manner, the one representing Venus dallying with Cupid, and the other, Europa carried off by Jupiter in the form of a bull. Prince Corsini has enriched his magnificent library with several of the precious remains of this ancient monument, which ought rather to have been preserved in its primitive state.

Petersburg, June 15. Our sovereign has founded two new establishments; one under the name of *the school of arts*, where boys of good family will be received at the age of five or six, and instructed till the age of fifteen, in all the sciences necessary for those who are destined to the service of their country. Sixty will be admitted the first year, sixty more the second, and so from year to year, till the number amounts to three hundred. This school was opened with great pomp and solemnity. The other establishment is for the education of an hundred and fifty young ladies, in imitation of that of St. Cyr, by which name it is called. The princess Dolgorowski is appointed governess.

Abstract of a letter in the Dutch Philosophical Transactions, on the animal electricity of the conger eel, written June 7, 1761, from Ria Essequebo, in South America, by Mr. Lott, surgeon of that colony.

“ The fish here called the drill wisch, or conger eel, is a kind of eel, in length from one to five feet, and of this singular quality, that it produces all the known effects of electricity, the like shock, the

the like real or supposed cures. I, at first, cured fowls grown paralytic by contractions of the nerves; and then, proceeding from animals to men, by electrifying a paralytic by striking his knees three times with one of these fishes fresh taken. The shock was such as to throw him down, with the two persons who held him; but he soon got up, and instead of being carried from the place of operation, walked away as if nothing had ever ailed him. With this admirable eel I have likewise cured nervous disorders, fevers, and very severe head-achs, to which the slaves here are peculiarly subject. Some of these wonders were performed before the governor and several other persons of consideration.

Mr. Henry Walton, a considerable farmer in Devonshire, who died lately without issue or relations, has left Mr. Wilkes a legacy of 5000*l.* in the following words, viz. "I give and bequeath unto John Wilkes, Esq; late member for Aylesbury, in Bucks, the sum of 5000*l.* as an acknowledgement to him, who bravely defended the constitutional liberties of his country, and checked the dangerous progress of arbitrary power."

Mrs. King, of Chertsey, in Surrey, aged 60, and whose husband is 72, was lately brought to bed of a son.

A young woman of Netra in Angermania, a province in the north of Sweden, was the 4th ultimo, brought to bed of a boy, on the 8th of a girl, next day of another girl, and died on the 10th in the delivery of a fourth infant.

Died lately. Mrs. Harris, op-

posite St. Ann's church, Soho, weighing 320*lb.*

Elizabeth Elfdon, near Morpeth, aged 106; her husband died in January last, aged 104.

Mrs. Mary Redmond, of Dublin, aged 103.

Mrs. Joanna Freeman, of Clerkewell, aged 107.

Mr. Ephraim Randal, of Morpeth, in Cumberland, aged 109.

AUGUST.

The great cause, relative to the tolls of Windsor-bridge, was determined in favour of the corporation, at Abingdon assizes. 1st.

Was held a committee of the new bridge at the committee-room, Black-fryars, in consequence of some very strong objections having been made to the construction of Blackfryars-bridge, particularly to the situation of the arches, and the projection of the abutment into the Thames, on the city side; when, upon full consideration of the apertures of the arches, their situation, and that of the bridge in general, the breadth of the river at Blackfryars, (being 1119 feet) and the nature and form of the banks on both sides, it was resolved, that the works carried on appeared to the committee to be constructed exactly agreeable to the drawings and papers laid before, and approved of by, them; and that, in the placing thereof, the greatest regard had been had to the navigation of the river, with all possible tenderness to the private rights of individuals. 3d.

17th. An order of council was published, signifying his majesty's intentions, that the laws should be strictly put in execution against smuggling, particularly on the neighbouring coasts of the Isle of Man; in consequence whereof, the lords commissioners of the admiralty are to station a number of ships and cutters, under the command of discreet officers, in the harbours, and on the coasts, of that island, in order to carry his majesty's intentions into execution; and the government of Ireland are likewise to give such directions for carrying his majesty's intentions into execution, as to them may respectively appertain. And in order to take from foreigners all excuse on the score of ignorance, those his majesty's intentions have been notified to most of the courts of Europe.

25th. The collection, at the annual feast of the governors of St. Luke's hospital, amounted to 400 l.

A large body of sailors, having waited on admiral Cornish, to know when and in what manner they were to receive their prize-money, for the capture of Karikal and Pondicherry, the admiral gave for answer, that he had waited on the directors of the East-India company, in their behalf, who signified, that they were of opinion, that the company is entitled to all public stores taken from the enemy; so that, this being the whole of the conquest, 100,000 pagodas excepted, 50,000 of which have already been distributed to the navy, and the other 50,000 reserved for the army, no further satisfaction can be given them. This an-

swer did not seem to satisfy the sailors; for as they were not paid by the company, they thought the least gratification they could have, was the plunder made in the company's service.

The marine society, having upwards of 1600 l. re-^{31st.} maining in their hands, have resolved to continue their salutary and public-spirited cares, in the cloathing and placing out apprentices the destitute orphans of sailors, soldiers, and others, in the lowest stages of human misery, to all kinds of business relating to the sea, being in hopes of further assistance for the promotion of their benevolent design.

There was lately taken near Bear, on the Devonshire coast, entangled in the lines of some lobster pots, a sea-turtle, about seven feet long; its fore fins were a yard long; its head was as large as a man's head; and its weight was guessed to be half a ton.

Seven Yarmouth ships are returned from the whale fishery, with seven fish; ten Londoners with seven fish, and two others with four fish and 100 seals skins; one Leith ship with one fish; one Borrowstoneness ship without any; one Aberdeen ship with a very small whale. The Dutch ships took only 117 fish; not half their usual number.

There have lately been put up, in the great court room at the East India house, Leadenhall-street, the three following curious white marble statues, viz, in the centre, over the chairman's seat, that of Sir George Pococke, knight of the bath, and admiral of the blue; on the admiral's right hand, Robert lord Clive, baron of Plassey; and,

and, on the left, major-general Laurence. These statues are bigger than the life, dressed in the Roman habit, and executed by Mr. Schemaker.

It appears, that no less than 3591 pair of soals, together with a great quantity of other fish, weighing in the whole above three tons and a half, have been distributed from the land-carriage fish-office in King-Street, Westminster, to the prisons and poor inhabitants of Lambeth, during the months of June and July last, amounting in value to 34l. 13s. and upwards.

At Bedford assizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Buckingham assizes, two, but reprieved.

Dorchester assizes proved a maiden one.

At Exeter assizes, five were capitally convicted.

At Gloucester assizes, three, but one reprieved.

At Guildford assizes, seven, five of them for the highway, who, with one of the others, were executed.

At this assizes, a remarkable cause was tried between Mr. Beaver of St. Martin's lane, plaintiff, and the toll-collector of the Surry turnpike, defendant. The case was this. Mr. Beaver's cart carrying dung to his farm in Kent, being found on weighing to exceed the ordinary limitations of the act by above 400 wt. the toll collector, on being refused the penalty, seized a horse, for the recovery of which Mr. Beaver brought his action. The counsel for the plaintiff argued, that dung for the manure of land was exempted in every road act, and was liable

neither to toll or penalty. The counsel for the defendant insisted, that by the late broad-wheel act, 3 George III. all exemptions whatever were taken away from narrow-wheels, and the words of the act being full to the point, a verdict was given for the defendant. This is the first cause of the kind that has come before any court.

At Hertford assizes, two were capitally convicted, but reprieved.

At Hertford assizes, a cause was tried, in which a citizen of London was plaintiff, and a farmer of Stanstead defendant, for a horse bought of the latter, warranted sound, which soon after proved defective in his eyes. The jury, without going out of court, gave a verdict for the plaintiff; and the judge, lord chief justice Mansfield, took occasion to declare, that if at any time any horse-dealer should take the price of a sound horse for an unsound one, the warranting, or not warranting, should make no difference in the decision.

At Hull assizes, two, but reprieved.

At Lancaster assizes, four, but three were reprieved.

At Leicester assizes, one.

At Maidstone assizes, five.

At Newcastle assizes, two.

At Northumberland assizes, one.

At Norfolk assizes, three, one of them reprieved till October.

At Northampton assizes, three for the murder of Thomas Carey. The deceased, who was a travelling Scotchman that sold stockings, calling some time ago at the house of one Seamark, near Gainborough, in the way of his trade, was followed by the prisoners, then

then in the house, who forced him back, murdered him in the garden, and buried the body hard by; but being fearful of a discovery, in a few days they took up the body, cut it in pieces, and burnt it in an oven: The entrails they gave to their dogs. The discovery of this horrid fact was made by Seamark's wife, and corroborated by circumstances that amounted to a demonstration.

At Norwich assizes, two were capitally convicted, of whom one was reprieved.

At Salisbury assizes, three, one of them for murder, who was executed.

At Shrewsbury assizes, two, but reprieved.

At Somersetshire assizes, two.

At Warwick assizes, one.

At Winchester assizes, one, but reprieved.

At Wisbeach assizes; for the Isle of Ely, one, but reprieved.

At Worcester assizes, one, but reprieved.

At the sessions held at Yarmouth for that borough, before the right honourable Robert Walpole, Esq; recorder, one.

At York assizes, one for murdering his wife, who was executed, and three for other crimes, who were reprieved.

Extract of a letter from D. G. esq;
at Venice.

“ I called at Parma in my way hither, and was introduced to the duke, when he dined with the duke of York; he speaks English well, and understands it better.— He had read Shakespear, and was very desirous to hear our manner of speaking, which desire he shewed

with so much feeling and delicacy, that I readily consented, in presence of the duke of York, lord Spencer, and the first minister. He was greatly pleased, and the next morning sent me a very handsome gold box, with some of the finest enamelled painting upon all the sides of it I ever saw.— He likewise ordered apartments for me, and sent me from his court more conceited by half than I came to it.”

Berlin, July 18. This day was performed at Charlottenbourg, the ceremony of betrothing between prince Frederick William, presumptive heir to the throne of Prussia, and the princess Elizabeth Christina Ulrica of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttel, in presence of the king and all the royal family of Prussia, the princes and princesses of Brunswick, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, the ministers of state, foreign ministers, &c. After the solemnity, the court supped in public, during which the gardens of Charlottenbourg were superbly illuminated, and the night terminated with a ball. The public rejoicings continued for three or four days.

Warsaw, July 16. Count de Keiserling, and prince de Repnin, had lately a public audience of the primate, in the presence of several of the magnates; on which occasion, an instrument, written on parchment in the Latin and Russian languages, was produced, with the seal of the republic affixed thereto, giving the empress of Russia, and her successors, the title of emperor or empress of all the Russias; in consideration of which, the czarina is to give it in writing, under her own hand, that
neither

neither she, nor any of her successors, will ever lay claim to any part of the provinces belonging to Poland, which may be included, comprehended, or contained under the said title; but that they shall reciprocally keep possession of all the provinces, as was stipulated in the treaty of peace concluded between the Russians and Poles in the year 1683. These writings are to be interchanged, when the empress arrives at Mittau.

An instrument of the same sort, giving the title of king of Prussia to that prince, he giving it under his hand in writing, that he the said monarch never made, nor he, or any of his successors, ever will make, any pretensions to any part of Polish Prussia, has been delivered to the Prussian ambassador.

Cadiz, August 10. A few days ago a dead body was landed here, inclosed in a long skin nearly resembling that of a bear. It was found, with several others of the same kind, in some caverns in the Canary islands, where they are supposed to have been buried before the conquest of those islands by John de Betancourt, a Norman, in 1417, or by Peter de Vera, a Spaniard, in 1483. The flesh of this body is perfectly preserved, but is dry, inflexible, and hard as wood, so that to the touch it seems petrified, though it is not. The features of the face are very perfect, and appear to be those of a young man; nor is that, or any other part of the body, decayed; the body is no more shrunk than if the person had not been dead above two or three days, only the skin appears a little shrivelled. This body is sent to

Madrid, to be deposited in the royal academy of surgery. The case, in which it was placed, had another small case within it, containing two or three vases, and a hand mill, which were found in the same cavern.

A basket woman of Clare-market was lately delivered of three girls.

Died lately, Mr. Allen, of Priorpark, near Bath, a gentleman not more remarkable for the ingenuity and industry with which he made a very great fortune, than the charity, generosity, and politeness, with which he spent it. A codicil to his will, dated the 10th November 1760, contains the following bequest.

“For the last instance of my friendly and grateful regard for the best of friends, as well as the most upright and ablest of ministers that has adorned our country, I give to the right honourable William Pitt the sum of one thousand pounds, to be disposed of by him to any of his children that he may be pleased to appoint for it.”

Mrs. Bentley, at Islington; by her death, 5000*l.* comes to the fund for the support of the widows and orphans of dissenting teachers; 100*l.* for the support of a dissenting teacher at Kingston upon Thames; and 1000*l.* to St. Thomas's hospital.

Susan Devon, in the Park, Southwark, aged 104.

Christopher Ximenes, near Cadiz, aged 110.

Joseph Fernandez, in Spain, by a fall down stair, aged 122.

In the 125th year of his age, George Kirton, of Oxnop hall, near Reeth, in Yorkshire, esq; a gen.

gentleman more remarkable for fox-hunting than the famous Mr. Draper; for, after following the chase on horseback till he was upwards of 80, so great was his desire for the diversion, that, (till he was 100 years old) he regularly attended unkennelling the fox in his single-horse chair. He was an instance that length of days is not always intailed on a life of temperance and sobriety; for no man made freer with his bottle than he did, even till within ten years of his death.

The fleur Somlyade, in Hungary, aged 131.

SEPTEMBER.

1st. His royal highness the duke of York arrived from his travels at his house in Pall-mall, and immediately waited upon his majesty, and the princess dowager, and soon after the rest of the royal family, by whom he was received with the greatest affection. His royal highness returned by land, directing his route through the inferior cities of France, without stopping any where, or making himself known.

Our readers, we believe, will not expect any detail of his royal highness's tour. However, we cannot help observing with pleasure, that his royal highness was solemnly invited from court to court, and received every where with all that respect and affection due to his birth and virtues, and all that pomp and splendor for which the Italians are so famous. The Roman senate and nobility shewed a particular attention to render his stay in that ancient city as agreeable as possi-

ble. The pope ordered him to be presented with two of the finest pictures, and three of the finest books of drawings of that feat of the fine arts. But the shews exhibited at Venice, for the entertainment and in honour of his royal highness, seem to deserve particular notice; for which reason, we think it our duty to give them, though at the end of the Chronicle, in order to avoid too long a digression in this place.

This day twelvemonth, at five in the afternoon, began at Banda Neira, one of the Molucca islands, a place very subject to earthquakes, situated in 4 degrees 30 minutes south latitude, and about 30 miles from Amboyna, one of the most terrible that had been felt there for above half a century past. The first shock lasted more than four minutes, and was so violent that nobody could stand upon his feet. All the inhabitants ran out of their houses, but were no sooner got into the street than they fell to the ground almost motionless. The same evening, and the following night, there were sixteen shocks more, but not so violent as the first. At the first shock, the sea fell suddenly five fathoms, and in less than three minutes swelled with inexpressible rapidity, and overflowed a great deal of land.

The castle, governor's house, magazines, &c. were rendered useless, and the church cracked in many places. More than three quarters of the north part of the island were destroyed, and Neira is entirely ruined. No part, in short, escaped without great damages. At the same time the volcano Papenberg threw out vast stones, &c. but

but what is extraordinary, only seven persons were killed. The inhabitants were all living under tents the 12th, when the letters giving this account were dated; the noises in the earth, like that of the firing of cannon, keeping them in continual fears of greater calamities.

5th. At the triennial meeting of the three choirs of Worcester, Gloucester, and Hereford, held at Worcester, the collection at the cathedral amounted to 198 l.

11th. St. James's. In answer to the representations made by his majesty's ambassador at the court of France, demanding immediate satisfaction and reparation for acts of violence committed, on the first of June last, by the commander of a French ship of war, in conjunction with other French vessels, at one of the Turks islands, the court of France has disavowed the said proceedings; has disclaimed all intention or desire of acquiring or conquering the Turks islands; and has given orders to the comte de Estaing, governor of St. Domingo, to cause the said island to be immediately abandoned on the part of the French, to restore every thing therein to the condition in which it was on the first of June last, and to make reparation of the damages which any of his majesty's subjects shall be found to have sustained in consequence of the said proceedings, according to an estimation to be forthwith settled by the said governor with his majesty's governor of Jamaica: and a duplicate of the said orders has been delivered to his majesty's said ambassador, who has transmitted the

same to his majesty's secretary of state.

These islands are many in number, of which that, where those violences happened, is the most considerable, or rather the least insignificant, being low, sandy, and barren, with very little if any fresh water, without any vegetables except low shrubs, or any animals except lizards, guanas, and land-crabs; but the coast abounds with fish and turtle, and the beach is covered with sea-fowl.

It does not appear that any settlement was ever attempted by any European nation on these islands, so that no claim can arise from possession. If priority of discovery bestows any title, they must certainly belong to the Spaniards, and not to the French, who neither discovered, nor ever did possess them.

The British nation has certainly been in use of gathering salt on them for many years past. The business of making it is chiefly carried on by Bermudians, who come here in the month of March, and continue during the dry season, leading a life, that the idea of liberty only can render preferable to slavery itself. They live in little huts covered with leaves; they have a knife in their pocket, and a kettle in their kitchen; their wardrobes consist of nothing but a straw hat, a check shirt, and a pair of Osnabrug trowsers; their food is salt-pork, and now and then a turtle or guana (a sort of large lizard) when they have time to catch them; and very often they are without bread; yet in this way of life they enjoy health. Nor do they ever differ about property or religion, for they have neither

ther priest, lawyer, or physician among them. The New-Englanders come here with sloops and schooners in great numbers, to load salt for their fisheries: they buy it from 4d. to 6d. sterling the bushel, and pay the poor Bermudians a small part in money, the rest in stinking rum, rotten pork, and musty biscuit, now and then throwing them a cask of sour water into the bargain.

The above islands have good anchor ground to the leeward, but no harbour any where. But then they form, with the Caicos bank, a channel of about a league over, which the English cruizers very much frequented during the war, as being the common passage for all vessels from Monte Christi. The French call this channel *Le debouquement des isles Turques*, and their pilots from Cape François always prefer it, when the wind favours, to the *Canal Anglois*, or windward passage of our Jamaica men. These, therefore, are the only reasons that can be assigned for their thus attempting to settle there; though it does not appear that they did more with that view (besides plundering and burning the cabins on it, and carrying the inhabitants, to the number of 200, and about nine sail of British shipping, to Cape François, where they released them, with orders not to return to Turks island) than erect two stone monuments of 80 feet high, the materials of which were all brought from Old France, and leave a few persons to take care of these monuments.

15th. The damages, done to an English merchant ship, which was, by mistake, attacked in May last by the commodore of

some Spanish xebeques cruising against the Algerines in the Mediterranean, were immediately repaired out of the Spanish arsenal at Carthagena: And, in consequence of the representations made, on that subject, by his majesty's ambassador at the court of Madrid, his catholic majesty has given orders for defraying the expence of the cure of the English who were wounded in that attack, for indemnifying the captain for the loss of time occasioned thereby, and for giving a gratification to the passenger who unfortunately lost his arm by a shot from the Spanish xebeque. *London Gazette.*

The above affair has been represented upon oath very much to the dishonour of the Spaniards. They were charged with firing several broadsides into the English vessel, while lying under the commodore's stern, even too near to be hulled by them, and while the crew were declaring themselves English, and crying out for mercy. Though, on the one hand, there may be something exaggerated in this account; on the other, there appears to have been something very extraordinary in the behaviour of the Spanish commodore, who, it is said, has been since broke and dismissed the service, at the particular desire of the English ambassador.

The cork jacket, the air jacket, the marine collar and belt, being so many new invented preservatives against drowning, were tried against each other at London bridge, while there was a considerable fall. Two men with cork jackets went through erect, without using their arms or legs, one of them with a drawn cutlass in his

his hand; then two men, and a woman in a mob cap and red ribbons, went through likewise in air jackets; these were followed by two men in the marine collar and belt. Thus secured, they danced in the eddy a considerable time, to the no small diversion of thousands of spectators, whom one of the men in the air jacket presented with apples, at the same time that he regaled himself with bread and cheese; after which he fired a pistol: these things were contained in his cap, which was made on purpose. Upon the whole, it was a droll and not indecent sight, they all being dressed in flannel shifts and linen breeches.

Ended the sessions at the Old Bailey, when five for burglary, two for highway robberies, and one for returning from transportation, received sentence of death. One was sentenced to be transported for fourteen years, and forty for seven years.

16th. The wind blew so violently as to carry away all that part of the new erected scaffold, on St. Bride's steeple, which stood above the stone-work. It was remarkable that the timbers snapt in two in the middle, while all remained firm underneath.

18th. Was held a board of longitude, for determining the merits of the three different methods proposed for discovering it at sea, by ascertaining the time of the place left, viz. that by observing the occultation and emersion of Jupiter's satellites in the marine chair invented by Mr. Irwin; that by taking the distance of the moon from the fixed stars with Hadley's quadrant; and that by Mr. Harrison's new invented

time-keeper; when, the proprietor of the marine chair endeavouring to refute the assertions of a gentleman, whose opinions he thought did not do justice to his invention, another gentleman, who spoke with great candour of all the three methods, acknowledged, that observations may be made with greater certainty in, than out of, the marine chair; but expressed his apprehensions as to the possibility of ascertaining the longitude at sea by it, though the satellite theory were sufficiently perfect, which he seemed to doubt. The commissioners acknowledged, that the lunar method answered very well, but they objected to the tedious calculation attending it; to obviate which, Mr. Witchell, a gentleman well known for his skill in astronomical calculations, presented to the board a method, by which that calculation may be reduced to a single proportion by logarithms, and consequently rendered as simple as can be desired. With regard to Mr. Harrison's time-keeper, its merits were found to be such, that the commissioners were pleased to give him an order for the immediate payment of 1000 l.

Bank stock rose near 8 per cent. on a dividend of 1 half per cent. instead of 2 1-quarter, as for some years past, being declared for the half year ending the 10th of next month, with assurance that there were great hopes the same dividend could be continued.

There was the highest tide in the river Thames that has been known for many years. Great damages were done by the filling of cellars and overflowing

ing of the low marshes: some ships, too, were dashed against each other by the violence of the wind. In some houses near the river, the water rose two feet in the ground floors.

A committee of merchants having lately waited upon the earl of Halifax, to represent the hardship they laboured under, on account of the non-payment of Canada bills by the French government, contrary to the express stipulations of the late treaty of peace for that purpose, his lordship was pleased to inform them, that every necessary step had already been taken, and should be continued, to oblige the court of France to comply with the terms of that treaty.

The following is an account of the distributions made of the money, &c. hitherto received, on account of the capture of the *Manilla*:

	l.	s.	d.
Between the admiral, general, and commodore —	14120	12	9
To the captains of the navy, and field officers of the army, each —	1539	8	0½
To the lieutenants and masters of the navy, and captains of the army, each —	165	4	8
To the warrant officers of the navy, and subalterns of the army, each —	89	0	5½
To the petty officers of the navy, and non-commissioned officers of the army, each —	30	0	1

To the seamen and

soldiers, each — 6 0 3

A mob of white boys attacked a party of regular forces, who were conducting four of their body to Kilkenny gaol in Ireland, with a view of rescuing them. The skirmish was obstinate and bloody, above thirty of the rioters and several of the king's troops having been killed or wounded. On the approach of a reinforcement, the rioters made a precipitate retreat, and the prisoners during the fray escaped. But the soldiers afterwards picked up nineteen of the wounded rioters, who were carried in carts to places of security.

It is reported, that for several months past scarce a smuggling cutter has gone over to France, without carrying some English sheep; for the transporting of which they are paid so much per head. In a pasture near Rouen in Normandy there are near two hundred, for the benefit of the great woollen manufactory carried on at that place, and to keep up the breed, the climate of Normandy agreeing nearly with that of England.

M. Roi de Valine, a young gentleman of Picardy, about the age of seventeen, was lately broke upon the wheel at Abbeville, and his body afterwards burnt, for attempting to poison, at an entertainment, his uncle and aunt, and several other persons, one of whom actually died in about five hours. He confessed the fact, and other crimes not charged against him in the process. Ten thousand crowns, out of his estate, were adjudged to the family of the deceased

ceased person; a very equitable sentence.

The royal academy of sciences at Paris, having appointed some proper judges to inspect the new porcelain manufactory of M. Lauragais, those judges have certified that they could discover no material difference between the paste of M. Lauragais and that of the true japan; and thereupon pronounced it worthy of national encouragement.

Another porcelain manufactory has been lately established at an immense expence, by the king of Prussia, in his majesty's dominions, and already brought to such perfection as to rival that at Missen near Dresden, which that monarch during the late war in a manner ruined.

M. de Voltaire holds out so well, that at the representation of Merope, at his seat on the frontiers of Geneva, for the entertainment of the dukes de Randan and de Tremouille, he played himself the part of Poliphontes.

Leghorn, August 17. It is now pretended to be known from good authority, that the republic of Genoa, no longer able to cope with the Corsican malecontents by land, and justly apprehensive of their being soon unable to do it by sea, has concluded a treaty with France relative to that island, and that this treaty was signed at Compeigne the 7th instant, and contains in substance, 'That his most christian majesty shall send seven battalions of his troops into Corsica, to stay there four years, and occupy Bastia, Saint Florent, Agagliola, and Ajaccio; that these troops shall not be engaged in the

war, but only be employed in securing to the republic the possession of these places; that his most christian majesty shall furnish them their pay, and bread and meat; but the island shall find them fire, candle, forage, and lodging; that the republic shall be at no other expence than the stipulated subsidy; that in the places, which the French troops shall occupy, there shall be no Genoese, and that the republic's representatives there shall take cognizance only of civil affairs; that, if by the presence of these troops in the island peace shall be restored, the most christian king shall be a guarantee to it; that they shall be transported from France about the end of September, under convoy of two frigates and two xebèques, after which these frigates and xebèques shall continue to cruize on the coast of Corsica till the month of December.

This morning the consul that resided at Algiers, on the part of this grand duchy, landed here with the disagreeable news, that the dey of that state had declared war against the emperor, grand duke of Tuscany. The reason of this hasty rupture is said to be, that a ship under Tuscan colours taken by the Algerines, but released on her being claimed by our consul, was afterwards found to be a Neapolitan. Letters from different places advise, that the said dey is also much incensed against the English and Danes, for their giving passports to ships of other nations, in order to make them pass as their own.

Copenhagen, Sept. 4. The nuptials of their royal and most
[H] 3 serene

serene highnesses, his majesty's eldest daughter and the hereditary prince of Hesse, were solemnised on Saturday last in the presence of their Danish majesties and the royal family. All the foreign ministers, by invitation, assisted, and afterwards supped, in the usual manner, at the king's table.—On the 13th the reigning prince of Hesse delivered in form the reins of government of the county of Hanau to the hereditary prince.

Though it can scarcely be said, we have any formal war with the Indians of North America, the letters from that country make frequent mention of their killing, scalping, and burning in the back settlements of our colony there; a thing not at all surprising, considering that these back settlements, as being very remote from the seats of justice, are the common rendezvous of all the vagabonds, runaways, thieves, &c. of the sea-coast, whose behaviour to the Indians may very charitably be supposed not always to coincide with the strictest laws of natural equity, of which, however, the rudest Indians may be competent judges, though not always wise enough to distinguish between the innocent and the guilty. Be that as it will, several of the provinces have resolved to check these evils, as much as possible, by prohibiting, under severe penalties, any person whatsoever from supplying the Indians with ammunition, arms, or warlike stores, not even those in friendship with the English, without a licence from the governor; and some of the colonies are upon establishing assizes in their most distant counties.

At Berghen, in Jutland, a peasant's wife was lately delivered of her 29th child, all born alive.

Died lately. At Durham, Mr. Robert Doddsley, of whom the compiler of this Chronicle hopes he may be allowed, after other periodical publications, to say, that he was, as a bookseller, long eminent for the countenance he afforded the Muses, a most agreeable poet himself, and one of the most amiable of men.

Mr. Stephenson, of Camberwell, aged 100.

Mrs. Margaret Daley, of Great Maddox-street, aged 101.

OCTOBER.

Admiralty office. By letters 2d. lately received from commodore Palliser, dated at St. John's, in Newfoundland, the first of last month, it appears, that having dispatched a sloop with a letter to the French governor of the island of St. Pierre, to enquire into the truth of the reports which prevailed of the French having mounted cannon, and erected works on that island, contrary to treaty, he, in answer, received assurances from the said governor, that there was only one four-pounder gun mounted, without a platform, and with no other intention, than to answer signals to their fishermen in foggy weather; that there were no buildings or works erected contrary to treaty; and that the guard consisted of no more than 47 men, and had never exceeded 50. It farther appears by the commodore's said letters, that there had not been, or were at that time, at the

the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, more than one French ship of war of 50 guns, one frigate of 26 guns, and another of less force, with two large ships en flute, the destination of one of the said ships en flute being for Cayenne, and the other for St. Domingo: That none of those ships had, and the commanding officer assured the commodore none of them would, enter into any of the harbours on the coasts of Newfoundland. And the commodore adds, that the concurrent fishery in those parts of the said coast, whereon the French are by treaties permitted to fish, had been carried on in perfect tranquillity.

3d. The tide of ebb was lower in the river Thames, than it has been known these many years. And the tide of flood rose so high at Ostend, without any known cause, that the inhabitants were thrown into the greatest consternation, lest the whole city should be overflowed.

9th. There fell in many parts of the Duchy of Cleves, and particularly in the city of Cleves, a kind of rain of a red colour resembling blood, which occasioned various speculations. It rained there without ceasing, not only the day on which the above phenomenon was observed, but several preceding days. It is said that something of the like kind was observed the same day at Rhenen in the province of Utrecht.

The above substance, having been since examined by Dr. Schutte, a learned physician, was found to contain nothing hurtful to man or beast. The ingenious Swammerdam has endeavoured to account for phenomena of this

nature, by observing that insects, soon after their assuming the volatile form, shed from the anus a few drops of blood. The above rain, therefore, might have been produced by some great swarm of such new metamorphosed insects, flying so high in the atmosphere, as to be hid by the clouds in the lower regions of it.

The merchants having presented a petition, touching the high prices of provisions, to lord Halifax, a council was immediately called; and, after examination of evidence, his majesty directly ordered his royal proclamation for the free importation of salted beef, salted pork, and butter, from Ireland, and a reward of 100 l. for discovering any unlawful combinations in the sale of provisions of any kind; the high price of which has lately given occasion to some disturbances at Plymouth, and other parts of England, particularly in Derbyshire, where the colliers, finding wheat one day in the market at 8 s. 4 d. the bushel, cleared the market at 5 s. a bushel, which they said was the London price. In York, the gentlemen associated to raise a fund for the importation of corn from other counties, that the poor might be supplied at a reasonable price. But, certainly, this might be effected solely by a greater exertion of the magistrates authority, to prevent monopolies, forestalling, and such other illegal practices.

A smart shock of an earthquake was felt in the 12th: Azores, or Western Islands; its direction was from the south-west, and it did considerable damage at Fyal.

19th. Ended the sessions at the Old Bailey, at which four were capitally convicted; one for forgery, and three for stealing. Three were sentenced to transportation for fourteen years, twenty-two for seven years, and one was branded.

31st. This morning were dispatched to Harwich, to be forwarded to Poland, 300 medals in gold, and 1500 in silver, done by Mr. Pingo: the former for presents to the nobility at the king's coronation there, the latter to be distributed among the populace. Legend, STANISLAUS AVGVSTVS D. G. REX POLONIAE, M. D. LITH. *i. e.* *Stanislaus Augustus, by the Grace of God, King of Poland, Great Duke of Lithuania.* In very small characters, on the edge of the king's bust, T. PINGO F. On the reverse, a crown with rays of glory round it. Legend, HANC IVSSIT FORTVNA MERERI. *This Fortune willed he should merit.* Exergue, El. una voce VII Sept. coron. xxv Nov. M.DCC.LXIV. *Elected, with one voice, 7 September, crowned 25 November, 1764.* His majesty is about thirty-two years of age, about five feet seven in stature, has a majestic aspect, and a piercing eye. He visited London in the year 1754, remained in England from the beginning of September to the latter end of December, and, when in town, lodged at Mr. Copenhole's, a private house in Suffolk street, near the Mews. During his stay in this kingdom he made a tour through South Britain, and examined every thing worthy the attention of an inge-

nious and curious traveller. He liked England, and was fond of the persons in genteel life with whom he conversed; but considered the lower class in a very unfavourable light, on account of some mobs which he chanced to be a spectator of, and from whence he too hastily formed his opinion of the behaviour of the whole body of the common people.

On an application from the merchants to the E—— of A—— for the repayment of the duties imposed on them by his authority at the Havannah while in possession of the British nation, his lordship told them, that, as he intended the said duties for the service of the government, he should make a tender of them to the treasury. But the lords of the treasury, on such tender being made, did, with the advice of the king's council, absolutely refuse to receive them, or to defend any actions that might be brought against his lordship for the recovery thereof. Upon this, his lordship appointed a person to refund the money arising from these duties to such of the merchants as would accept of it, without interest, and subject to the following abatements, viz. 9 per cent. for exchange, 2 1-half per cent. freight of the money home, and 5 per cent. commission to the collector. It is said that the amount is about 50,000 l. sterling, clear of these deductions.

On opening the late duke of Devonshire's will, there appeared a codicil of his grace's own handwriting, in these words, dated July 23. "I give to general Conway five thousand pounds, as a testimony of

of my friendship for him, and of my sense of his honourable conduct and friendship for me."

Information having been made against three persons of Tarrant Nishton in Dorsetshire, for harbouring smuggled tea, on searching their houses there were found about thirty pounds of tea, mixed with leaves, and 1030 pounds weight of ash, elder, and floe leaves, dried and prepared, ready for mixing with tea, part whereof was intended to be sent to Guernsey, to be mixed there. These leaves were collected in the summer, in Cranborn chase, wherein the poor of that neighbourhood were so much employed, that the farmers could not get labourers for their harvest.

There has been discovered at Withersfield in Suffolk, a Roman burying-place, a glass urn of a good colour, and of an elegant make, with a fluted handle; it contains two gallons and a half, wine measure, and is thought to be the largest that ever was discovered, at least in England. It is in the possession of the Reverend Mr. Barnard, rector of Withersfield, and chaplain to his majesty.

A few days ago, two children going upon a bridge at Attercliffe-forge, near Sheffield, one of them, a boy about six years of age, fell into the river, from which his body was taken up before it sunk, but without any appearance of life. A lady of quality, hearing thereof, sent her maid, with directions for rubbing the body (lying before the fire) well with salt: in about two hours there appeared symptoms of life, and much wa-

ter came out of the ears and nostrils; they still continuing to rub the body, soon after the child spoke, and had the use of its limbs, and is now as well as ever.

M. Elie de Beaumont, advocate in the parliament of Paris, and so much known for his generous defence of the family of Calas, having in a tour through England been to visit the university of Oxford some days ago, was honoured with the degree of doctor of laws; an action which reflects equal honour on that learned university, being a convincing proof of her readiness to acknowledge merit, and reward it, in persons of every country and religion.

As the quarrymen were lately ridding of stone, in the island of Portland, for the new bridge at Blackfriars, three feet six inches from the surface of the ground there appeared something like the stump of an old tree. Mr. Dixon, the contractor for the mason's work of the said bridge, being then upon the spot, upon further examination, discovered it to be a real one, with its root petrified as hard as flint; the whole length four feet six inches, and the diameter above the root seventeen inches. What is very remarkable, it was encompassed with stone, in form like the dome of a well standing obliquely, and its root in a stratum of black earth, eight inches deep, and about seven feet from the surface of the ground.

Thirty-two small whales have been caught by some Dutch fishermen this season, near the island Rona, one of the western isles of Scotland, about 60 miles east of
the

the north promontory of the Lewes. In the months of July and August the shores of Rona, it seems, are much frequented by these fish, which are of a species between a grampus and a spermaceti whale. Six of them are esteemed equal to the best imported from the Greenland seas.

The senate of Russia, to whom the empress had sent all the depositions relating to Mirowitz, on declaring him guilty of high treason, and worthy of death, presented an animated address to her imperial majesty, entreating her to have speedy and exemplary justice executed on this offender, and not to consider him as, in any respect, an object of pity. On the other hand, powerful intercession is said to have been made in the behalf of Mirowitz, and that her imperial majesty's answer to the senate was to the following effect: *That it is their business to judge according to the evidence before them; but that it is her prerogative to decide, whether or no that judgment is to be executed with rigour, or to be tempered by mercy.* Mirowitz underwent his sentence with great intrepidity. The whole trial was printed and published on the day of his execution.

Some antiquities lately discovered in a vineyard near the church de Saint Cefair, situated on the Appian way, not far from the ruins of the baths of the emperor Caracalla, at Rome, have been removed to the Clementinian college there. The workmen who made the discovery struck against a thick vault, which they broke through with great difficulty. In this vault they found four urns

of white marble, adorned with bass reliefs, the subject of which left no room to doubt their being sepulchral urns. Under this vault they perceived another, which being broke through discovered two magnificent oval basins, the one of a black colour mixed with the veins of the *lapis calcedonius*, its greatest diameter about six feet and a half, the least three feet, and the depth two feet. This basin was covered with a marble slab, which sawed into two very handsome tables, and contained a human body. The second basin was of a greenish colour, of the same dimensions with the first, except its being but a foot and a half deep. This was covered with white marble, and contained the body of a woman very richly cloathed. But the marble was hardly removed, when the body and its attire fell wholly into powder; from which was recovered eight ounces of pure gold. Near the urns was a stone with the following inscription:

D. M.

V L P I A E

A V G. L I B. A C T E

C O N I V G I

O P T I M A E

C A L L I S T V S A V G.

D I S P E N S A T O R.

On the right side of this stone was added

D E C E S S I T

I I I I I D V S

D E C E M B R I S.

The rest of the inscription was destroyed by the marble being broke. In the same place was found a small statue of Pallas, in white marble; the work of which is highly esteemed.

Copen-

Copenhagen, October 1. Upwards of 1400 persons are daily employed in the Danish royal woollen manufactory, which produced last year sixty-six pieces of good cloth; and in other woollen fabrics there are, in the whole, about 4000 men more at work. There are likewise 16 silk fabrics, in which 938 persons are at work.

Kingston in Jamaica, July 23, 1764. We shall now very shortly have the trade with the Spaniards again opened, as a vessel has just now brought orders to the governor and admiral, to take off the prohibition, and to permit the Spaniards to enter our ports as usual, which has given fresh spirits to the merchants here.—The goods which the Spaniards take most off, are Manchester linens, checks, and handkerchiefs, fine printed linens of all sorts, cambricks, Britannias, Silefias, hats, &c.

The inhabitants of our North American colonies, disabled, by the restrictions laid on their trade to the French and Spanish West India islands, to pay their mother country for such goods as they hitherto used to take from her, are come to a resolution to manufacture for themselves, and have already produced some specimens of their abilities to carry into execution a scheme, which may in the end prove so detrimental to her. In the mean time, they have laid aside all those superfluities of dress, such as mourning in black, &c. with which their own manufactures cannot supply them. They, likewise, have several works of iron, which are

so useful in every other manufacture, and they are likely to have that valuable metal very soon in great plenty and perfection; it appearing by a letter from the late Mr. Jared Elliot, to the secretary of the society for encouraging arts, &c. that there are vast quantities on the sea coasts of New England, and in many other places, of a black sand, from eighty-three pounds of which he produced a bar of excellent iron, weighing fifty pounds, of an excellent texture for making steel, and all other uses. Add to this, that Cape Breton and Nova Scotia abound with excellent coal mines, in some places so near the surface, and so highly situated, as to require neither digging nor draining. Those of Nova Scotia have been already opened. On the other hand, the French, at their islands, are entering largely into the manufactory of distilling molasses, the better to enable them to carry on the African trade; by which means they can be supplied with their slaves at a much cheaper rate than any of the English islands. This undertaking, if carried into execution, must soon open the eyes of the English planters in the West Indies, and will, in the mean time, very sensibly injure the trade of Liverpool.

A farmer's wife, at Black Notley, near Braintree in Essex, who will not have been married five years till the latter end of next month, has been brought to bed five times since her marriage, and had two children at a birth each time; she lay in of the last two in July, and is now with child again. The first two children were born upwards of eleven months after marriage,

marriage, but only three of the ten are living. The ages of the husband and wife together do not amount to 43 years.

Died lately. Mrs. Dorothy Collier, supposed to be the largest woman in the north of England; she weighed upwards of 30 stone, and yet was very active. Her coffin measured in length two yards two inches, in breadth a yard and four inches, and in depth two feet six inches.

William Hogarth, esq; the celebrated comic painter.

Mr. William Smith, of Chichester, a celebrated fruit and flower painter.

Mr. Parmentier, an attorney in the temple. He bequeathed to 12 hospitals of this city 100 l. each; rings to the porters plying at the Inner-Temple gate; and had left to his shoe-black 20 l. but the man not calling for three days, he ordered his name to be struck out.

Mrs. Morgan, of St. James's street, Westminster, aged 100.

Mrs. Martin, in St. James's street, Westminster, aged 100.

NOVEMBER.

6th. About a quarter past four in the morning, a slight but alarming shock of an earthquake was felt at Oxford, the neighbouring towns and villages, at Cirencester, in Gloucestershire, and in different parts of Berkshire and Wiltshire. It is agreed, that though the wind soon after became tempestuous, the morning

was, at the time of the shock, perfectly calm and serene.

A dreadful fire broke out in the workshop of a snuff-maker in Aldersgate street, which consumed that and several other houses, together with the timber-yard of Mr. Hatton, valued at several thousand pounds. Many persons were hurt, and some lost their lives.

After various attendances at the bar of the court of king's bench, in order to receive sentence for republishing the North Briton, No 45, Mr. Williams, the bookseller, was ordered to the king's bench prison, there to remain till next term, when he is to receive sentence. Some days after, Mr. Kearsley having likewise surrendered himself, in discharge of his bail, to receive sentence, for originally publishing the same paper, he was, like Mr. Williams, sent to the same jail, till the same time.

On a memorial being presented by the earl of Hertford to the French court, setting forth the illegal proceedings of the governor of Goree, in attempting to establish a settlement near the river Gambia, that court has declared its disapprobation of his proceedings, and he is recalled to give an account of his irregular behaviour.

A melancholy accident lately happened in a town called Birr, in Ireland. About six hours after a hole had been opened to clean a pump, a lad about twenty years old descended a ladder, and when he had got about half way down, was suffocated by the damp; a man, who

who perceived him falling, inconsiderately followed him down, and fell likewise when he got to the same depth; another man, who came up to the place as the second person fell, ran down the ladder as hastily as possible, and shared the same fate. The best and safest way to know if there is any danger in going down into such places, is first to let down a lighted candle by a rope; for, if the candle goes out, it is a sign there is at bottom some vapour prejudicial to animal life.

Intelligence has been received from Algiers, that Mr. Harrison, commander of a small English squadron, has terminated with the bey the differences which subsisted on account of the taking of a vessel bearing an English flag, and for which that commander had orders to demand satisfaction. The bey has restored the vessel without requiring any money, which is thought very extraordinary, being contrary to the custom of these pirates, to whom every thing appears lawful prize.

They write from Lisbon, that in digging up the foundation of an old palace, burnt in the late fire, the workmen found an urn containing three hundred gold medals of the emperor Titus, which appear to have been struck soon after that prince's last expedition against the Jews, having this inscription, TITO VESPASIANI AVGVSTI FILIO, IVDAEIS SVBACTIS.

Berlin, Nov. 20. The king has caused public notice to be given, that the fund of the

bank, lately established there, may consist of 25,000,000 of dollars, to be divided into 100,000 actions of 250 dollars each, payable in gold at the opening, on the first of June, 1765. The grant is made out for thirty years.

His majesty has lately published a decree, by which the lords of manors are enjoined to treat their tenants or farmers with more mildness and humanity than in time past, and not to deliver them over to military punishment; it being his majesty's pleasure that the military jurisdiction should not be confounded with the civil; that each should be confined within its own proper limits; and that when a lord thinks himself injured in any respect by a tenant, he shall cause him to be brought before a magistrate, to be dealt with in the ordinary course of justice.

Very great quantities of saltpetre have been bought up in Russia, by the consent of the empress, on account of his majesty, to the exclusion of every other nation, insomuch that a quantity already on board some Dutch and English vessels was relanded, and delivered to the Prussian commissaries.

Manich, Nov. 21. By an ordinance of our sovereign, published on the 13th, for reviving and extending the mortmain law of 1672; it is ordered, that no convents or ecclesiastical communities shall, under any pretext whatever, whether for the purpose of masses, anniversaries, pious works, or exercises of devotion, obtain a title for more than 2000 florins at any

any one time, either in money or effects. That no one person shall make a second donation, so as to exceed that sum. That no pension to a relation who has taken the vows shall be above 100 florins a year, and then to revert back to the lawful heirs. And all estates of inheritance, which shall fall to a religious, shall likewise go to the heirs. The foundling hospitals, establishments for the poor and sick, parish churches, ecclesiastical seminaries, schools and benefices founded by secular priests, and estates in foreign countries, are excepted in this ordinance. Fraternities approved by the sovereign are not to acquire more than 50 florins at a time. Offences against this ordinance are to be punished by a fine of double the sum obtained, over and above the allowance of 2000 florins.

His Polish majesty has ordered the Prussian code to be translated into Latin, and printed at Warsaw at the public expence; after which, it is proposed to offer both pecuniary and honorary rewards, to the best deviser of a body of laws, founded on the brevity of the Prussian code, but adapted to the genius and constitution of the Poles. By the Prussian code, no law-suit can last beyond a year and a day.

Königsberg, Nov. 19. Yesterday evening, about seven o'clock, a terrible fire, occasioned by lightning, broke out here in a sail-shop, near the herring wharf, where it immediately destroyed about 3000 barrels of that fish; and, running along the quay, consumed

the hemp, flax, and other ware-houses filled with all sorts of merchandize. The conflagration then spread over the Kniphorff, the old town, and the Levenhaupt, where it burned with an irresistible rapidity, reducing to ashes all the houses, hospitals, churches, and public buildings. Numbers of people, particularly the sick in the royal hospital, and those attempting to assist them, perished in the flames. The survivors are reduced to the greatest want and misery. The violence of the fire was so great, that pieces of timber were found kindled at the distance of two leagues, to which they had been driven by it. The lighted bundles of paper, scattered over the neighbouring woods, cast forth so great a blaze, as to be seen distinctly at Dantzic, though 48 miles off.

Turin, Nov. 10. The malecontents of Corsica, finding their progress in the attack of St. Fiorenzo did not promise them a speedy success, raised the siege of that place last week, and have retired to the interior parts of the country. They have, however, on account of the daily expected arrival of French troops to the assistance of Genoa, renewed the following manifesto, said to have been sworn to, by Paoli and his adherents, in the year 1734.

“ We have sworn, and we call upon God to witness it, that we will all of us sooner die than enter into any negotiation with the republic of Genoa, or return under its yoke. If the powers
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of Europe, and the French in particular, withdrawing their compassion from an unhappy people, should arm themselves against us, and concur in our total destruction, we will repel force by force; we will fight like desperate men, determined either to conquer or die, till, our strength and spirits being quite exhausted, our arms fall out of our hands; and, when we have no strength to take them up again, when all the resources of our courage shall be exhausted, our despair shall furnish us with the last, which shall be to imitate the famous example of the Saguntines, by rushing voluntarily into the fire, rather than submit ourselves and our posterity to the insupportable yoke of Genoese tyranny and slavery."

Rebecca Parferry, of Newton, near Bury, Suffolk, was lately delivered of three daughters.

Died lately. The Reverend Mr. Churchill, the celebrated satyrist, at Boulogne, on a visit to Mr. Wilkes.

Mr. Robert Lloyd, author of the Actor, the Capricious Lovers, and several other ingenious pieces; he was so much affected on hearing of the death of Mr. Churchill, that it is said to have brought on the illness, which ended in his death.

Mr. Lock, at Broughton Poys, Oxfordshire, aged 100.

Mrs. Alice Fort, in Cambridge-shire, aged 100.

Mary Frances, of Moorfields, aged 102.

Eleanor Hunt, at Lydd, in Kent, aged 103.

Mrs. Pelican, of Cork, aged 105.

John Ridge, at Newark, Gloucestershire, aged 107.

At Newent in Gloucestershire, Joseph Budge, a taylor, aged 107. He retained all his faculties till a few hours before his death. He had had two wives, by whom he had children, grand children, and great grand children, to the number of 102, and by his last wife three children born after he was 80, the last of which when he was 85. Some time before his death he lost the nails of his hands and feet, and afterwards had new ones, the same as a young infant; and, till about a year before his death, he had his mouth full of teeth, sound and good.

Matthew Hubert, at Birr, Ireland, aged 121.

At Duleek, in the county of Meath, Owen Carollan, labourer, aged 127. He had six fingers on each hand, and six toes on each foot; he was never blooded, and an entire stranger to sickness.

DECEMBER.

Came on before lord chief justice Mansfield, and a special jury, in the court of king's bench, a remarkable cause, in which a country tradesmen was plaintiff, and a merchant of London defendant; the tradesman had taken in the country, for a valuable consideration, a banker's note payable to bearer, of which note the merchant had his pocket picked about twelve months ago in London, and had stopt payment; but

but the note being confessedly a genuine note, and no forgery, a verdict was given for the country tradesman, with costs of suit. It is remarkable, that this affair was tried some months since in the same court, before a special jury also, who gave a verdict for the defendant.

10th. Was heard before the lord high chancellor, in Lincoln's-Inn hall, a very interesting cause, wherein a Yorkshire lady was plaintiff, and James Reilly, a reputed Antinomian preacher, and others, were defendants. The cancelling of an annuity deed of 50l. for the life of the defendant Reilly, fraudulently obtained by him without valuable consideration, from a person labouring under a temporary enthusiastic frenzy; and the refunding a considerable sum of money, obtained under the like circumstance, were prayed; when, after a full hearing of council, his lordship was pleased, to the extreme satisfaction of a crowded hall, to decree in favour of the plaintiff.

11th. Came on a remarkable cause in Westminster-hall, wherein a magistrate for the county of Middlesex was plaintiff, and another magistrate for the city and liberty of Westminster, defendant, in an action of false imprisonment and confinement of the former by the latter for upwards of two hours; when, after a full hearing, and several learned arguments on both sides, a verdict was given for the plaintiff, with 50l. damages, and full costs of suit.

Came on in the court of common pleas, at Westminster hall, before the lord chief justice Pratt, and a special jury, a cause wherein Mr. Arthur Beardmore, an eminent attorney at law, was plaintiff, and the right honourable the earl of Halifax defendant, in an action for false imprisonment in a messenger's house; when, after a hearing of eight hours, the jury withdrew, and in about three quarters of an hour brought in a verdict for the plaintiff, with 1500l. damages.

And the day following came on the several causes, wherein the Reverend Mr. Entick, Messrs. Fell and Wilson, booksellers, and Mr. Meredith, clerk to Mr. Beardmore, were plaintiffs, and the earl of Halifax and others, defendants, by four different juries; when Mr. Entick had a verdict of 20l. Mr. Fell of 10l. Mr. Wilson of 40l. and Mr. Meredith of 200l.

In relation to Mr. Beardmore's having 1500l. damages given against the earl of Halifax, it should be observed, that on a former trial he had 1000l. against the messengers, and that the verdict for the 1500l. included the first 1000l. by which the earl of Halifax is made liable to make good the verdict against the messengers. Mr. Entick had only 20l. damages, as he had already received satisfaction for the 300l. given in his cause against the messengers on a former trial.

The warrants, upon which the plaintiffs were apprehended and detained, were determined to be legal
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in these actions, and the verdicts were grounded for detaining the plaintiffs longer than was thought necessary, before they were examined.

17th. A cause came on in the court of common-pleas, between John Monro, a gentleman from North America, plaintiff, and capt. Houlton of the royal navy, defendant. The action was for illegally confining the plaintiff, on board one of his majesty's ships at Nova Scotia above six months. The jury gave a verdict for the plaintiff with 400l. damages.

Ended the sessions at the Old Bailey, at which nine were capitally convicted; one of them for murdering his reputed wife: another, John Wesket, on the evidence of John Bradley an accomplice, for stealing out of the dwelling house of the earl of Harrington two bank notes, value 130l. 400l. in money, a gold watch, three gold snuff-boxes, and several other valuable articles, the property of his lordship. James Cooper, with whom Bradley lodged, was found guilty of receiving a part of the said goods, and sentenced to be transported for 14 years. [For an account of this robbery, and the manner in which it was discovered, see our Appendix.]

At this sessions Sarah Lane, otherwise Sarah, wife of William Merchant; otherwise Sarah, wife of Thomas Flint; otherwise Sarah, wife of Thomas Morgan; otherwise Sarah, wife of Adam Steadman; was indicted for bigamy, to which she pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to be branded in the hand. She had before been indicted for shop-lifting, and

acquitted; but on her trial for bigamy, it was expected that many thefts would have appeared, to prevent which she artfully pleaded guilty.

John Fetch, a baker in White-cross-street, was convicted before Sir John Fielding, for having in his bake-house a quantity of allum, which was adjudged by that magistrate to have been lodged there with an intent to adulterate the purity of meal, flour, and bread, contrary to the statute; upon which he paid the penalty of four pounds for that offence, being a mitigation of the penalty of 10l. forfeited by the act. We mention this fact to caution our readers against such abuses, and likewise remind them of an association entered into, during a scarcity of bread at the beginning of the last war, by the workmen in some of his majesty's dock yards, for erecting a baking to supply themselves with bread at a cheap rate, which they effected. Are not such associations amongst private families equally necessary, and may not they be equally effectual, in procuring a supply of wholesome bread?

Some time this month a spermaceti whale was thrown ashore on the flats at Sea Salter, near Whitstable in Kent, whose extreme length was fifty-four feet, and girth in the broadest part, over back and belly, thirty-eight.

At the meeting of the creditors of Mr. Kearsley, the original publisher of the North Briton, No 45. the celebrated Mr. Foote appeared as a creditor, and was of no little service to the bankrupt by throwing the rest of the creditors

ditors into a good humour; he opened the conference in his facetious manner, with, *Gentlemen, it is a very common case for a bookseller to be seen among the creditors of an author; but for once! strange to tell! you see an author among the creditors of a bookseller.*

31st. The Spanish court has refused to accept the ransom bills drawn on it by the archbishop and governor of Manilla, on pretence of a breach in the capitulation of that place; which, being so unusual a charge against English troops, we think it our duty to give an abstract of a letter of colonel Draper's to lord Halifax in refutation of it, in the Appendix to this part of our work.

The Swedes, it seems, have but just begun to cultivate potatoes, notwithstanding the indefatigable industry of the great Linnæus. A royal edict, however, is now issued to encourage their cultivation.

About the beginning of this year the plague broke out in the city of Spalato, capital of Venetian Dalmatia; and was soon followed by a famine, by which, though it was hindered from spreading far, and now and then appeared to have totally ceased, that country lost a great number of its inhabitants. Nor is there any certainty of its being yet entirely subdued.

Letters received by the society for promoting Christian knowledge from Madras in the East Indies, May 25, 1763, contain an account, that their missionaries had stretched a great way into the country among the heathens, making many proselytes. Those mis-

sionaries say, that the reverend Dr. Francke, in Germany, had sent them a number of Tamulian types, with a promise of more, which they were to be enabled to use; the government having erected a printing-office in the city of Madras, and given the care and inspection of the same to them.

Paris, Dec. 7. An edict has just been registered in parliament, whereby his majesty dissolves the society of Jesuits for ever; but permits them, nevertheless, to reside in his kingdom as individuals, under subjection to the spiritual superiors of the places where they reside, and on conforming themselves to the laws, and behaving in all respects as becomes good subjects. By the same edict an entire and perpetual stop is put to all criminal proceedings that have been commenced against them on any account whatsoever.

Our academy of sciences has approved a new method of silvering brass, &c. by a silver powder, applied in form of a thick paste, and so thoroughly fixed by means of fire, that the work thus silvered will bear being touched up by the graver.

Turin, Nov. 20. On the 23d ult. Dr. Tronchin, of Geneva, inoculated prince Ferdinand, who is perfectly recovered; in consequence of which, the doctor, though a protestant, is appointed first physician to his royal highness. The corporation of Parma have desired leave of his royal highness to admit the doctor and his descendants, into the order of noble citizens, and to erect his statue in the town-hall; also to strike a gold medal, on one side of

of which is the doctor's effigies, and on the reverse a rapid river, in which several swimmers, endeavouring to cross it, are carried away with the stream, while a man on the bank shews another in a little boat, in which they may safely get over; the motto *tutissimus ibis*. The corporation of Placentia have also desired leave to enroll this celebrated physician among their noble citizens; and this request, as well as those of the inhabitants of Parma, has been granted.

Bastia, Nov. 15. The 23d ult. the principal of the malecontents met to deliberate on the expected arrival of French troops in this island; and the result of their deliberations was, that, tho' his most christian majesty's intention seemed to be only to defend the places which the Genoese are possessed of in that island, they thought it necessary for the public safety to take the following precautions:

First, That a military committee, composed of subjects from each of the provinces, be formed in order to enforce the observation of the regulations, which forbid all communication between the free inhabitants of Corsica, and those of the places belonging to the free Genoese. Secondly, that the French be prohibited coming into the country, on any pretence whatsoever. Thirdly, that all proposals for peace with the republic shall be absolutely rejected, unless she will previously agree to the preliminaries proposed in the general assembly at Casinca, 1761. Fourthly, that Pascal Paoli shall be charged to make, in the name of the whole country, the

most respectful remonstrances to his most christian majesty, upon the damage he will do the country, by sending his troops at a time, when the Corsicans were upon the point of driving the enemy intirely out of the island. Fifthly, that, in order to give weight to these representations, Paoli shall be charged at the same time, to apply to the powers in friendship with this country, for their mediation with his most christian majesty, and to implore their protection, for the defence of their rights and liberties.—The French troops have since arrived in Corsica.

Brunswick, Dec. 3. This day her royal highness the hereditary princess was safely delivered of a princess, and her royal highness, and the young princess, are both as well as can be wished.

Berlin, Dec. 14. By an express, just arrived, we have the disagreeable news, that the whole town of Fendenthal, in the Upper Silesia, except 26 houses, is reduced to ashes. The fire broke out the 11th of this month early in the evening, and was not got under till the next day at noon. Even the remparts are destroyed, and all the ammunition and provision lodged in the storehouses and caverns are consumed. The town-hall, the public school, and church, with its fine altar, pictures, and relicks, amongst which were the bones of St. Constance, all fell a prey to the flames. The shops of the foreign merchants, who came to attend the fair, which was to have been opened there the very next day, had the same fate, with all the rich goods and effects which they contained.

tained. Nobody has been able to save any thing; vast numbers of those who were surpris'd by the flames miserably perished in them; and the rest, as there was but one gate free, had a great deal of difficulty to save themselves. Those, whom the fire has spared, are expos'd to the cruel horrors of want and misery.

The mathematical prize question propos'd by our academy of sciences, is, *An explanation of the principle whereby water is rais'd by the machine commonly called Archimedes's screw, together with the means of improving this machine.* The prize is a gold medal of fifty ducats weight. The memoirs are to be transmitted to M. Formey, perpetual secretary to the academy, before the 1st of January, 1766; and the academy's judgment will be declared at the public meeting on the 31st of May, of the same year. The authors are desir'd, instead of naming themselves, only to put a motto to their memoir, adding a sealed note, containing the motto, and their address.

The fumigating of cattle with burning tar has been discovered to be a preservative against the infection which has raged in many parts of Germany.

Warsaw. Nov. 17. Our new king seems to abhor all excess in luxury. His majesty, having order'd his shoe-maker to be sent for, was soon after extremely surpris'd to see enter his apartment, in order to take measure of him, a man dress'd in embroidered velvet. He was, it is true, the court shoe-maker; but his majesty dismiss'd him, without permitting him to exercise, in that sumptu-

ous habit, the noble and brilliant functions of his office, saying at the same time, seemingly in good-humour however, *What cloaths must I wear, if people of your profession dress in this manner?*

The beginning of this year, Harvard college, in New England, was entirely destroyed by fire, with the public library, philosophical apparatus, &c. to the immense and almost irreparable loss of the province and all North America. The general assembly have agreed to rebuild it, and a collection has been made to endow it.

Mrs. Smith, wife of a journeyman carpenter, aged 63, was lately delivered of a son.

The wife of Mr. William Plover, clerk to Mr. Willet, in Corn-street, Bristol, was lately delivered of a girl, and in about twelve hours after of two more girls and a boy. They were baptized by the names of Hannah, Sarah, Mary, and William. The children were larger than many twins; they at first seem'd hearty and likely to live, but died some days after.

Died lately. The hon. Tho. Hancock, esq; at Boston in New England. He has left 1000 l. sterling for founding a professorship of the Hebrew and other Oriental languages, in Harvard college in Cambridge; 1000 l. lawful money to the society incorporated by an act of this province for propagating the gospel among the Indians in North America; 600 l. to the town of Boston, towards erecting an hospital for the reception of such persons as are deprived of their reason; and 200 l. to the society for carrying on the linen manufacture.

Mrs.

Mrs. Carter, at Dublin, aged 104.

Mr. Moor, at Ennefzellen, Scotland, aged 120.

A general bill of christenings and burials in London, from December 13, 1763, to December 11, 1764.

Christened.		Buried.	
Males	8593	Males	11503
Females	8208	Females	11699
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16801		23202	

Decreased in the burials this year 2941.

Died under 2 years of age	7673
between 2 and 5	2026
5 and 10	939
10 and 20	877
20 and 30	2000
30 and 40	2228
40 and 50	2403
50 and 60	1823
60 and 70	1607
70 and 80	1099
80 and 90	471
90 and 100	53
	101
	104
	<hr/>
	23202
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Supplement to the bills of births, &c. for the year 1763, at the end of our Chronicle for that year.

Dantzick, Christenings 2005. Burials 1888. Weddings 618.

Gotha, Births 372. Deaths 302. Marriages 68.

Konigsberg, Births 1987. Burials 1818. Marriages 993.

Magdeburgh, Births 941. Deaths 1116. Marriages 263.

Mecklenburg Schwerin. The four cities of Schwerin, Rostock, Gustrow, and Parchim. Births 816. Deaths 700. Marriages 370.

Norwich, Christened, males 537 females 496; total 1033. Buried, males 544, females 543; in all 1087.

Paris, Burials 20,171. Weddings 4479. Christenings 17,456. Foundlings 5153.

Prussian Pomeranias. Births 11,072. Deaths 9100. Marriages 3422.

Vienna, Births 5879. Deaths 8479.

By a medium of the births and burials at Paris, it has been made appear, that one fifth of the children born there is sent to the foundling-hospital; and one third of the people who die there, die in an hospital.

This so extraordinary a circumstance is to be attributed to the indiscriminate reception of all the children sent to the foundling-hospital, and of all the sick that present themselves at the Hotel-Dieu, whatever age, sex, country, or religion they may be of, or whatever their complaint may be, and likewise to the extraordinary poverty of the lowest class of inhabitants; notwithstanding which poverty, they marry more than in England, or perhaps elsewhere, not only on account of the strictness of the police, by which licentiousness of every kind is more restrained than with us, but because married men are exempted from serving in the militia, from which draughts

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draughts are generally made to recruit the standing army.

BIRTHS for the year 1764.

Jan. 31st. *Lately*, lady Brabazon, of a daughter,

Feb. 6. The princess Nassau Weilbourg, sister of the stadtholder, of a daughter

20. Lady Catherine Beauclerk, of a daughter.

21. Lady of the hon. Tho. Townshend, of a son.

23. Countess of Elgin, of a son.

Mar. 19. Countess of Fingal, of a daughter.

22. Lady Mary Walker, of a son.

31. *Lately*, duchess of Savoy, of a princess.

Lady Hardy, of a daughter.

April 3. The Dauphiness, of a princess.

7. Lady Gibbons, of a son.

Lady Legard, of a son.

Lady Graham, of a son.

30. Lady Grey of a daughter.

May 9. Lady Betty Parsons, of two boys.

10. Countess of Plymouth, of a son.

15. Lady of the hon. Mr. Roper, of a son.

31. *Lately*, lady Dolben, of a daughter.

June 4. Lady Betty Gallini, of a daughter.

6. Lady Middleton, of a daughter.

9. Lady of the hon. judge Bathurst, of a daughter.

17. Lady of the hon. John Bentinck, of a son.

Lady Digby, of a son.

30. Lady of lord Geo. Sackville, of a daughter.

July 11. Lady of Sir John Hynde Cotton, bart. of two sons.

17. Duchess of Grafton, of a son.

21. Lady of the hon. col. Fitzroy, of a son.

31. *Lately*, countess of Sutherland, of a daughter.

Viscountess Powerscourt, of a son.

Lady Bampfylde, of a daughter.

Lady of the hon. Thomas Pelham, of a daughter.

Aug. 5. Countess of Lauderdale, of a son.

3. Duchess of Ancaster, of a daughter.

11. Lady Arundel, of a daughter.

15. Countess of Northesk, of a daughter.

27. The hon. lady Blois, of a daughter.

31. Lady Ashley, of a son.

Sept. 13. Lady Edgcumbe, of a son.

24. The hon. Mrs. Hill, of a daughter.

30. The hon. Mrs. Bagot, of a daughter.

Lady of Sir Harry St. John, of a son.

31. *Lately*, lady of the hon. Morgan Vane, of a daughter.

Lady Arundel of Wardour, of a daughter.

Oct. 17. Lady Townley, of a son.

20. Lady St. John, of a son.

Lady Whiteford, of a son.

28. Lady Pococke, of a daughter.

Nov. 8. Lady of the hon. Mr. Cary, of a daughter.

16. Vis-

16. Viscountess Downe, of a son.
 30. *Lately*, lady Clive, of a daughter.
 Dec. 2. Ducheſs of Athol, of a daughter.
 5. Lady of Sir William Beauchamp Proctor, of a daughter.
 20. Ducheſs of Marlborough, of a daughter.
 21. Lady Juliana Penn, of a daughter.

M A R R I A G E S.

- Feb. 4. Sir George Warren, knt. of the Bath, to miſs Biſhop, daughter of ſir Cecil Biſhop, and one of the maids of honour to the queen.
 21. The archduke Leopold, to an infant of Spain.
 Sir Robert Throckmorton, bart. to miſs Heywood of George-ſtreet, Hanover-square.
 25. The hon. col. Weſt, to lady Mary Grey, only daughter of the earl of Stamford.
 Sir Wm. Maxwell, of Sprintwell in Scotland, to miſs Stewart of Blackall.
 Apr. 7. Sir Roderic M'Kenſie, to miſs Colquhoun of Luſs in Scotland.
 30. The earl of Pomfret, to miſs Draycote of Saville-row.
 John Milburn of Argyle-buildings, eſq; to lady Martha Harley, daughter to the counteſs dowager of Oxford.
 May 19. Lord Roſeberry, to miſs Ward of Hanover-square.

31. *Lately*, Joſeph Henry, eſq; to lady Cath. Rawdon.
 John Millbank of Cavendiſh-square, eſq; to lady Charlotte Wentworth, daughter to the late marquis of Rockingham.
 June 7. The marq. of Tavitoek, to lady Elizabeth Keppel.
 Sir James Lake, bart. to miſs Crowther.
 20. Maurice Suckling, eſq; to the hon. miſs Maria Walpole.
 July 2. Lord Warkworth, to lady Anne Stuart.
 19. Lord Groſvenor, to miſs Vernon.
 Sir Charles Will. Blunt, bart. to miſs Peers.
 31. *Lately*, lord Garlies, to miſs Daſhwood.
 Hon. Mr. Rochford, to miſs Mervin.
 Sir John Eden, bart. to miſs Kitty Thompson.
 Maurice Fitzgerald, eſq; to lady Anne Fitzmaurice.
 Aug. 25. The earl of Cork, to the hon. miſs Courtenay.
 Sept. 26. Right honourable earl of Coventry, to the honourable miſs Barbara St. John.
 Oct. 11. Sir Thomas Pym Hales, of Beakesbourn, Kent, to Mrs. Couſsmaker, of Dane-court.
 23. Rev. Mr. Daſhwood, late of Magdalen-college, to the youngeſt daughter of the earl of Banbury.
 Nov. 4. The hon. George Sempil, eſq; to miſs Clive, ſiſter to lord Clive.
 Sir James Maxwell, of Pollock, bart. to miſs Colquhoun of St. Kitt's.

Dec. 16. Hon. Marmaduke Mer-
vil, esq; at Bath, to miss
Morgan of Swansea.

27. Sir John Cathcart of Car-
leton, Scotland, bart. to
miss Hamilton of Fourtree-
hill.

Principal PROMOTIONS for
the YEAR 1764, from the Lon-
don Gazette, &c.

Jan. 22. William Horton, of
Chaderton, Lancashire, and his
heirs male, a bart.—George Brid-
ges Rodney, esq; vice admiral of
the blue, and his heirs male, the
same dignity.—George Cockburne,
Thomas Slade, William Bately,
Edm. Mason, Tim. Brett, Robert
Osborne, and William Bateman,
esqrs; Sir Richard Temple, bart.
Frederic Rogers, Richard Hughes,
and Thomas Hanway, esqrs. com-
missioners of the navy.—Andrew
Elliot, esq; receiver of all duties,
dues, and revenues, at New York,
(the revenues of the customs ex-
cepted.)

—28. The Earl of March-
mont, keeper of the great seal of
Scotland, in the room of the duke
of Athol, dec.—Lord Cathcart, first
commissioner of the police, in the
room of the earl of Marchmont.—
Henry Moore, of Jamaica, esq; and
his heirs male, a baronet.

Feb. 11. Daniel Bomeester,
gent. consul at Carthagena.

—21. The marquis of Granby,
lord lieutenant and custos rotulo-
rum of Derbyshire, in the room of
the duke of Devonshire.

March 31. Robert Melvill, esq;
governor of the isles of Granada,
the Grenadines, Dominica, St.
Vincent, and Tobago.—Hugh Pal-

liser, esq; governor of Newfound-
land, &c.

April 3. Philip Stanhope, esq;
envoy extraordinary to the court of
Dresden, and William Gordon, esq;
minister at Ratisbon.

—20. George James Bruere,
esq; governor of the Bermuda
islands.

—28. Basil Cochran, esq; a com-
missioner of the customs in Scotland,
in the room of R. Montgomerie,
esq; and Thomas Lockhart, esq; a
commissioner of excise, in the room
of B. Cochran, esq;

May 19. The right hon. Robert
lord Henley, baron of Grange in
the county of Southampton, chan-
cellor of Great Britain, and his
heirs male, an earl of Great Britain,
by the name, stile, and title of
earl of Northington in the said
county.—William Young, Alex-
ander Græme, John Hunt, Robert
Stewart, and Robert Wynne, esqrs;
commissioners for the sale of lands
in the islands of Grenada, Grena-
dines, Dominica, St. Vincent, and
Tobago.

—22. The right reverend doctor
Richard Terrick, bishop of Peter-
borough, bishop of London.

—22. William Young, esq; re-
ceiver of all the monies arising by
the sale of lands in the islands of
Grenada, &c.

—31. *Lately*, Norborne Berke-
ley, esq; late knight of the shire for
the county of Gloucester, obtained
the peerage of Bottetourt by appeal
to the right honourable the house
of peers, after a hearing of counsel
seven days, in favour of the appeal.
—His lordship has since taken the
oaths, and his seat in the house of
lords.

June 10. The honourable Robert
Walpole, one of the clerks of the
privy

privy council, in the room of Mr. Fane, who has resigned.

—12. Dr. Robert Lamb, dean of Peterborough, bishop of that see, in the room of bishop Terrick, translated to the see of London.

—16. Sir Edward King, bart. baron Kingston, of Rockingham, in the county of Roscommon, in the kingdom of Ireland, with remainder to his issue male. — Sir Ralph Gore, bart. baron Gore, of Manor Gore, in the county of Donegal, in the same kingdom, with like remainder. — Stephen Moore, esq; baron Kilworth, of Moore Park, in the county of Cork, in the same kingdom, with like remainder.

July 11. Richard Orlebar, esq; a clerk of the privy council in extraordinary,

—31. *Lately*, Dr. Smith, master of Westminster school, in the room of Dr. Hinchliffe, who resigned.

Aug. 9. George Amyand, of London, merchant, William Duncan, of Marybone, M. D. and sir Samuel Gordon, at Newark upon Trent, knight, baronets.

—17. The earl of Powis lord lieutenant of the county of Salop. — The reverend William Lowther, M. A. of Swillington, Yorkshire, and his heirs male, a baronet.

—21. The earl of Northington, lord lieutenant of the county of Southampton, and the town and county of the town of Southampton.

—31. *Lately*, John Gore, esq; solicitor general in Ireland, chief justice of the king's bench in that kingdom. — George Macartney, esq; envoy extraordinary to the court of Russia.

Oct. 19. The earl of Effex, lord lieutenant of Hertfordshire.

—30. *Lately*, Major general Thomas Gage, commander in chief of the forces in North America, in the room of major general Amherst.

Nov. 12. Josiah Hardy, esq; consul at Cadiz and Port St. Mary. — The fleur de Passow approved of consul for Denmark in the ports of England, &c.

—17. His royal highness prince William Henry, second brother to his majesty, duke of Gloucester and Edinburgh, in Great Britain and earl of Connaught, in Ireland. — Edward Legrand, esq; treasurer, colonels Clinton and Ligonier, grooms of the bed-chamber, captains Cox and Blackwood equerries, and the reverend Mr. Duval, secretary to his royal highness.

—23. George Pigot, esq; late governor of Fort St. George, a baronet, with remainder to his two brothers.

—30. *Lately*, The earl of Thomond, lord lieutenant and custos rotularum of Somersetshire.

Dec. 4. Sir Thomas Sewell, knight, master of the rolls, &c. and soon after a privy counsellor.

—22. Monfort Brown, esq; lieutenant governor of West Florida. — John earl of Hyndford, vice-admiral of Scotland, and the earl of Northumberland, vice-admiral of all America.

—31. *Lately*, Mr. Yorke received a patent of precedence, by which he takes place at the bar, next to the attorney general.

DEATHS.

DEATHS. 1764.

January 2. The right hon. Nicholas viscount Loftus, of the kingdom of Ireland, succeeded in title and estate by his eldest son the honourable Nicholas Loftus, esq;

8. His grace James duke of Athol, baron Strange, lord of Man and the isles, &c. &c. aged 74. He is succeeded in his Scotch titles and estate by his nephew the honourable John Murray, and in his barony of Strange and lordship of Man by his daughter, lady Charlotte Murray, wife of the said honourable John Murray, now duke of Athol.

The relict of sir Thomas Tempest of Tong-hall, bart.

Sir John Rutherford of Rutherford, Scotland.

11. Sir Justus Dennis Beck, bart. the title is extinct.

14. Lady Gascoigne, daughter and heiress of sir Francis Hungate of Huddlestone, bart. and mother of Sir Thomas Gascoigne.

17. The right hon. Hamilton Boyle, earl of Cork and Orrery, in Ireland, and lord Boyle of Marston in England; who, dying unmarried, is succeeded in his titles and estate by his brother, the hon. Edmund Boyle, esq;

27. The right hon. Charles earl of Dalhousie, succeeded by his brother the hon. George Ramsay, esq;

31. *Lately*, The lady viscountess Lisburne.

The hon. Mrs. Cecil, relict of a late bishop of Bangor.

February 6. Sir Jacob Gerard Downing, bart.

17. The right hon. Charles Moore, earl of Charleville in Ireland.

26. Sir William Skipwith, of Prestwood, in Virginia, bart.

March 3. The dowager lady Vandeput, mother of sir George Vandeput.

6. The right hon. Philip Yorke, earl of Hardwicke, viscount Royston, high steward of the university of Cambridge, &c. aged 73. succeeded by his eldest son, Philip lord visc. Royston. March 23, 1720, he was appointed solicitor general, and Jan. 31, 1723, attorney general. In October 1733, he was constituted lord chief justice of the king's bench; and Feb. 21, 1736-7, lord high chancellor, which high office he resigned in 1756. In July 1749, he was chosen high steward of the university of Cambridge. His lordship married Margaret, one of the daughters of Charles Cocks, of Worcester, esq; by whom he had five sons and two daughters, viz. 1. Philip, lord visc. Royston, 2. The hon. Charles Yorke, late attorney general. 3. The honourable sir Joseph Yorke, now ambassador at the Hague. 4. The honourable John Yorke, member for Higham Ferrers in Northamptonshire. 5. The hon. and rev. James Yorke, dean of Lincoln. His lordship's two daughters were, lady Elizabeth, married to George lord Anson, who died June 1, 1760; and lady Margaret, married in 1749 to John Heathcote, esq; son and heir of sir John Heathcote, bart. [See his lordship's character in the second part of this vol. p. 279.]

The honourable miss Tracey, sister to lord Tracey.

10. The reverend sir Nathaniel Edwards, bart. As he left no issue, the title is extinct.

12. The

12. The right honourable lord viscount Townshend, succeeded in title and estate by his eldest son George. May 24, 1723, his lordship was called up by writ to the house of peers, and was one of the gentlemen of the bedchamber to the king. In the same month he married Audrey, sole heiress of Edward Harrison, esq; late governor of Fort St. George, and by her had issue four sons and a daughter, viz. 1. George, aged 40, commander in chief at taking Quebec, after the death of general Wolfe. 2. Charles, member, in the late and present parliament, for Harwich. 3. Edward, who died of the small-pox. 4. Roger, killed during the last war in America. 5. Audrey, who died before Roger.

14. The right hon. George Cholmondeley, viscount Malpas, member for Corfe-castle, colonel of the 65th regiment of foot, and of the Cheshire militia, and eldest son of the earl of Cholmondeley. At the battle of Fontenoy his lordship served as a volunteer, and soon after was made aid-de-camp to general Ligonier, and had a company. In the rebellion in 1745, he was made lieut. col. of a regiment raised by his father, and served in the last parliament for Bamber in Suffex. He has left issue by Hester, daughter of sir Francis Edwards of Shrewsbury, one son and one daughter.

15. The only son of lord Carberry.

16. Sir William Mannock, of Gifford's Hall, in Suffolk, bart. succeeded by an only son, now a minor.

17. The right hon. the earl of Macclesfield, one of the tellers of

the exchequer, &c. &c. and president of the royal society, succeeded in title and estate by his eldest son, the hon. Thomas viscount Parker, now earl of Macclesfield. His lordship first married Mary, eldest daughter of Ralph Lane, esq; by whom he has left two sons; by his second wife he has left no issue.

18. Sir George Hare, bart. of Stow-hall, Norfolk. As he died a batchelor, the title is extinct.

25. The hon. Mrs. Hannah Nevil, aged 96, mother to the late lord Abergavenny.

Lately, Lady Burdett, of York. —the hon. Mrs. Brudenell.—The reverend sir Nath. Edwards, bart. rector of Weybridge, in Surry; the title is extinct.—Sir George Chalmers, bart. in the East-Indies.

April 13. Sir John Freke, of the kingdom of Ireland, bart.

15. The famous marchioness of Pompadour, in the 43d year of her age.

16. The right honourable Warden Flood, lord chief justice of the king's bench in Ireland.

May 5. Lord Woodhall, a senator of the college of justice in Scotland.

6. The right honourable lord viscount Powerscourt, of Ireland; succeeded by his brother, the honourable Richard Wingfield, now viscount Powerscourt.

13. The right reverend doctor Thomas Osbaldeston, lord bishop of London, &c. &c.—The lady of sir Charles Hotham, baronet.

16. Mrs. Smithson, mother of the earl of Northumberland, aged 75.

17. The honourable Robert Dormer, esquire, brother of lord Dormer.

Dormer.—The relict of sir George Dunbar, at Edinburgh.

19. The second daughter of viscount Weymouth.

31. Sir Gilbert Elliot, bart. in Scotland, — Lady Harry Pawlet, suddenly, at Bath.

Lately, the relict of sir Francis Curzon, bart.

The right hon. Charles earl of Traquair, succeeded by his brother the honourable John Stewart, esq; now earl of Traquair.—The right honourable lady Anne Moseley.—The right honourable lady viscountess Folkstone.

June 1. The lady of sir Richard Hilton, of Hilton-hall, bart.

23. The honourable lady Anne Fane, eldest daughter of the earl of Westmoreland.—The right honourable sir John Philipps, succeeded in title and estate by his only son, now sir Richard Philipps, bart.

27. Sir Andrew Mitchel, of West Shore, in Scotland, bart.

28. The right hon. lady viscts. dowager Strangford.

30. *Lately*, Lady Jane Jenoure, near Dunmow, aged 79.

July 7. Right honourable Thomas lord Holmes, baron of Kilmallock.

8. The right hon. Will. earl of Bath, lord lieut. and custos rot. of the county of Salop, F. R. S. and one of his majesty's most hon. privy council, aged 82. In July 1742, his lordship was created baron of Heydon, viscount Pulteney, and earl of Bath. As his lordship died without issue, the title is extinct; but his paternal estate devolves to his brother, lieut. general Harry Pulteney.

11. The right hon. James earl of

Findlater, vice admiral of Scotland.

12. Lord Campbell, son to the marquis of Lorn, in Scotland.

21. The lady of Sir Harry Grey, bart.

28. Sir Charles Molyneux, of Teverfal, in Nottinghamshire, bt. succeeded in his title and estate by his brother, William Molyneux, esq;

30. Rev. sir Hadley D'Oyley, bart.

31. *Lately*, Sir Gilbert Elliott, of Stobbs, in Scotland, bart.—Sir John Stewart, of Granthilly, in North Britain, bart.—Sir William Dudley, of Clapton, in Northamptonshire, bart. the title is extinct.—The hon. capt. Sempil, at the Cape of Good Hope.—The right hon. viscountess dowager Mountgarret.—The hon. Mrs. Curzon, sister of lord Scarfsdale.—Sir Orlando Bridgman, bart.—The right hon. lady Irwin.

August 3. Her grace the duchess of Leeds, suddenly, while at dinner, at her seat in Hertfordshire.

11. The lady of the late lord Aston.

15. Lady Anne Dalston, in Yorkshire.

16. The hon. general Otway.

18. The lady of sir John Griffin.

23. The right hon. Henry Bilson Legge, esq; uncle to the earl of Dartmouth, some time chancellor of the exchequer, member for the county of Southampton, and F. R. S. at Tunbridge Wells, where he went for the recovery of his health.

26. The hon. Charles Monson, uncle of lord Monson.

27. The right hon. Richard Parsons,

Parsons, earl of Rofs in Ireland; the title is extinct.—The right hon. John lord Belhaven, succeeded by his brother James, now lord Belhaven.

28. Sir John Barnard, knt. lord mayor of London in the year 1737, and who represented that city in six parliaments, and was some time honoured with the title of father of the city; all which offices he filled with so much satisfaction to his fellow citizens, that they thought proper to express their gratitude by erecting a statue to his memory in the Royal Exchange.

Sept. 6. The reigning duke of Saxe-Saalfeld Cobourg, aged 67.

8. Sir Patrick Murray, bart. in Scotland.

11. The lady of sir Thomas Frederick, bart.

18. The right hon. earl Cowper, lord lieut. and custos rot. of Hertfordshire. His lordship was the eldest son of lord chancellor Cowper, and is succeeded in the title and estate by his only son the right hon. George visc. Fordwich, born in 1738.—The lady of sir Thomas Morgan, bart.

21. The right hon. the lady viscountess Barrington.—The lady of Sir Charles Buck, bart. at Bath.

27. The right hon. John lord Trevor, F. R. S. succeeded in title and estate by his brother, the hon. Robert Trevor Hampden, esq;

30. *Lately*, Sir William Douglas, of Glenbervie, bart.—The hon. Lewis Erskine, brother to the earl of Buchan.

—Sir Patrick Murray, of Orchteptyre, in North Britain, bart.—Lady Ashley, of Bath.—

Sir William Hardres, of Hardrescourt, in Kent, bart. the title is extinct.—the right hon. lady Fanny Montague, second daughter of the earl of Halifax.

October 2. His grace the duke of Devonshire, at the Spa in Germany. His grace was eldest son of William, the late duke, by Catharine, daughter of John Hoskins. esq; and in March 1748 married the lady Charlotte Boyle, heiress of Richard, late earl of Burlington, by whom he had issue, 1. William, now duke of Devonshire; 2. lord Richard; 3. lord George Henry; and 4. lady Dorothy. His grace, at his decease, was lord high treasurer and a privy counsellor of Ireland, governor of the county of Cork, knight of the garter; &c. but some time before had resigned all his places on the British establishment.

5. The right hon. lady Anne Hatton.

12. The lady of sir William Hanham, bart.

26. Lady King, mother of lord Kingston.

31. *Lately*, lady Morgan, Wife of the member for Herefordshire.—The hon. lady Ramsden, sister of the late lord Lonsdale, and the last of that noble family.

November 3. The right hon. earl Paulet, viscount Hinton, lord lieutenant and custos rot. of Somersetshire, &c. dying a bachelor, he is succeeded in title and estate by his brother Vere.

5. Lady Lawson, wife of sir Henry Lawson, bart.

10. The right hon. Fulwar lord Craven, succeeded in title and estate by his brother William.

13. The right hon. sir Thomas Clarke,

Clarke, knight, master of the rolls, and a privy counsellor. He is supposed to have died worth 200,000*l.* of which he has left 30,000*l.* to St. Luke's hospital, and the remainder, all to a few small legacies, to the right hon. the earl of Macclesfield.

14. Sir Philip Chetwood, of Oakley, in Shropshire, bart. succeeded by his eldest son, John.

15. The lady of Sir Henry Lawson, bart. Yorkshire.

16. Lady Graham, wife of the late colonel Brown.

30. *Lately*, Sir John Wynne, of Leefewood, Flint, bart.—Mr. Charles Churchill, the celebrated poet and satyrift, at Boulogne, on a visit to Mr. Wilkes.—Mrs. Lowther, sister of the late earl of Tyrone.

—Sir Nathaniel Thorold, of Harmston, in Lincolnshire, bart.

The Princess Sophia Augusta, sister of the king of Sweden, prioress of Quedlinbourg, aged 59.

December 2. The right hon. the lady viscountess Irwin, one of the ladies of the bedchamber to the princess dowager of Wales.

5. The hon. Mrs. Lowther, mother of the present sir James, and of the countess of Darlington, at Bath.—Sir John Sinclair, near Dalkeith, Scotland.

8. Her grace the duchess of Roxburgh.

15. Mr. Robert Lloyd, the celebrated poet.

17. The hon. lady Amelia Hotham, niece to the earl of Chesterfield.

18. The right hon. lady Ross.

19. His grace doctor George Stone, archbishop of Armagh, and primate of all Ireland.

21. The lady of sir Wm. Owen, of Pembrokehire, bart.—The hon. William, son of Lord Walpole of Wolterton.

28. The right hon. Henry earl of Shannon, viscount Brandon, baron of Castlemartyr, and one of the lord justices in Ireland, aged 82.

31. *Lately*, The celebrated bishop of Pontoppidan, at Copenhagen.—Lady Anne Wolfe, aunt to the late general Wolfe.

APPENDIX to the CHRONICLE.

Extract from a direction lately given to a jury in Dublin, by a learned judge of the court of King's Bench in Ireland, in an action brought for false imprisonment.

Cavannah } May 15th, 1764. At
against } *Nisi Prius* in B. R. in
Poole. } Ireland, an action of
false imprisonment; and issue joined on the plea of Not Guilty.

Part of the judge's direction to the jury.

AS to the damages, I must observe, that in cases of injuries to particular persons, the law hath instituted civil actions for the recovery of such damages as the party has sustained by the injury; and the *quantum* of the damage the jury must determine, upon the circumstances of the evidence.

It often happens, that such injuries are involved in, or comprise, crimes of a public nature; but this consideration, as it really is in its self, ought to be kept distinct by juries; and the punishment of the crime as it affects the public, and as an example to stop and deter others, belongs to another method of proceeding, (*viz.*) a prosecution on behalf of the public, under the prerogative of mercy dispensed by the crown.

In civil actions, therefore, juries ought only to take into consideration the damage sustained by the party. If they go farther, and, under pretence of giving damages to parties, really set up to punish public crimes, it is usurping on the constitution as to criminal jurisdictions, and must be attended with bad consequences to the fundamentals and balance of our constitution; as indeed is, generally, the case of breaking any of the limits which the law hath settled for the several offices in its administration. I have sometimes known juries fall, by mistake I presume, into a wrong behaviour in this particular; and they have made themselves censors of offences against public interest, when the law only appointed them arbitrators for valuing the private loss of the party.

Therefore it is expedient to warn you, that this action is not for punishing the usurpation of a jurisdiction by the court of conscience against law: the proceeding for this purpose must be in another method: but you are only to consider what damage the plaintiff has sustained by this arrest and imprisonment; and upon this point, you are properly to consider his condition in life, and what he hath suffered in person, property, or even fame and character;

rafter; and, on the whole, to proportion his compensation to what you really think his loss; but public interest or example are not proper for your consideration on this occasion.

His readiness of submission to the warrant has been urged as a desire to go to gaol; and so, upon the principle of *Volenti non fit injuria*, pressed as an argument to shew, he could not be hurt by it. This seems very strained; for he could not avoid gaol but by paying.

Make the plaintiff what, on your oaths, you think an amends for the damage he really sustained; but public considerations of correction, punishment, or reformation, are not your business or duty at this time.

WESTMINSTER RACES.

1762—OCTOBER MEETING.

LORD Bute's *Favourite* (the noted Scotch stallion) won the king's plate; beating Mr. Pitt's famous horse *Guide* (who had won several plates in different parts of England) and lord Temple's bald-faced mare, *Moll Garwky*.

Betts before starting—*Favourite* against the field.

1763—SPRING MEETING.

Noblemen and gentlemen's great subscription.

Lord Bute's dun horse, *Treasurer* 1st.

Lord Holland's black horse, *Paymaster* 2d.

Lord Halifax's brown mare, *Falconer* 3d.

Sir Francis Dashwood's sorrel horse, *Redstreak* 4th

Duke of Newcastle's grey horse, *Smuggler*, aged, fell lame in running.

Marquis of Rockingham's *Swiss* dr.

Lord Ashburnham's *Ranger* ditto

Lord Kinnoul's *Lancaster*, distanced, owing to his being rode in a *Pelham bit*.

Duke of Devonshire's *Old Whig*, ran out of the course.

Henry Bilson Legge's *Southampton*, paid forfeit.

Mr. Wilkes's horse *Liberty*, rode by himself, took the lead at starting; but being pushed hard by Mr. Bishop's black Gelding, *Privilege*, fell down at the Devil's Ditch, and was no where.

1763—OCTOBER MEETING.

KING'S PLATE.

Duke of Bedford's horse, *President* 1st.

George Grenville's *Gentle Shepherd* 2d.

Lord Sandwich's *Jemmy Twit-cher* 3d.

Lord Egmont's *King John* 4th.

Charles Townshend's horse, *Trimmer*, ran on the wrong side of the post.

Mr. Pitt's bay horse, *Guide*, was in training for this match, and expected to enter at the post, but went off.

General A'Court's horse, *Major*, col. Barre's *Governor*, and general

ral Conway's *Dragoon*, paid forfeit.

Great expectations from lord Shelburn's colt, but he ran rusty; and 'tis supposed he will not start any more. Some knowing-ones, who had backed him for a considerable sum, were taken in deep.

Mr. Luther's colt, four years old, weight 8st. 4lb. beat Mr. Conyer's *Freehold*, aged, weight 9st. —'Twas observed at starting, that *Freehold* carried too much weight. However, it is thought he would have won the heat, had not a person, belonging to one of the public offices, crossed the course whilst he was running.

The sweepstakes, over the duke's course, was won hollow by lord Albermarle's *Havanna* from a great many others. But disputes having arisen, whether or not *Havanna* was duly qualified, part of the money is detained in the hands of the clerk of the course.

APRIL 11.

The second great match was decided between the two famous Persian horses, Mr. Sullivan's *Leader*, and Lord Clive's *Nabob*. Though *Leader* won at the former meeting, yet he barely saved his distance this time — 'Tis said this remarkable difference in his running, was owing to his having changed his rider.

Odds at starting—Six to four on *Leader*.

A true copy of the race list.

Witness my hand,

H E B E R, jun.

VOL. VII.

Heads of the militia bill which received the royal assent on the 24th March 1764.

THE sum of 20,000*l.* being granted to his majesty, upon account, towards defraying the charge of pay and cloathing for the unembodied militia, for one year, from the 25th day of March 1762; in order that the charge of pay and cloathing for such militia may be duly and properly defrayed and satisfied.

Where the militia is or shall be raised, but not embodied, the receiver general of the county shall issue four months pay in advance, according to the establishment of pay here set down; that is to say, for the pay of four calendar months in advance, at the rate of 6*s.* a day for each adjutant; 1*s.* each serjeant, with the addition of 2*s.* 6*d.* a week for each serjeant major; 6*d.* a day for each drummer, with the addition of 6*d.* a day for each drum major; five pence a month for each private man and drummer, for defraying contingent expences; and also half a year's salary to the regimental and battalion clerks at the rate of 50*l.* a year, and allowances to the clerks of the general and subdivision meetings, at the rate of 5*l.* 5*s.* for each general meeting, and 30*s.* for each subdivision meeting; and pay for cloathing of the militia after the rate of 3*l.* 10*s.* for each serjeant, 2*l.* for each drummer, with the addition of 20*s.* for each serjeant major, and each drum major; and where the militia has not already been cloathed, or not been cloathed within three years, 30*s.* for each private man.

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The above sums shall not be paid, if pay has not before been issued, till the lord lieutenant or deputies shall have certified to the treasury and receivers general the enrolment of three fifths of the men and officers.

The money shall be issued by the receiver general to the clerk of the regiment or battalion (except the allowances to the clerks of meetings) upon producing the warrant of his appointment; and for independent companies, to the respective captains, or to their order: a second payment shall also be made within three months after the first, and a third within three months after the second. Receipts of the persons to whom the money shall be so paid shall discharge the receivers general.

The regimental and battalion clerks shall pay and advance one month's pay to the adjutant, and two months pay to each captain, for the serjeants, serjeant major, drummers, and drum major, and contingent expences of his company. Captains shall distribute the pay accordingly; and account for the same yearly to the clerk, or, if an independent company, to the receiver general; and pay back the surplus monies in his hands, except the contingent expences, which shall be accounted for, and applied to the general use of the regiment, &c. Captains of independent companies shall distribute the pay to their men, and apply the money allowed for contingent expences.

The clerk shall retain money in his hands for his own salary; and shall discharge the cloathing bills.

When the lord lieutenant and deputies shall have fixed the days

of exercise, they shall certify the same to the receiver general, specifying the number of men and days they shall be absent from home. The receiver general shall issue thereupon pay for the men to the regimental clerk, &c. who shall pay over the same to the respective captains.

Captains shall make field returns to the commanding officer; and keep an account of every day's exercise, to be examined and compared with the return.

Captains shall make up their account of all monies received, by way of debtor and creditor, to be signed by them, and countersigned by the commanding officer, and delivered, with the balance, to the clerk, or receiver general; which accounts shall be allowed to be sufficient vouchers at the receipt of the exchequer.

During the time the troops are embodied, and called out into actual service, and receive pay as the king's other forces, all pay from the receivers general shall cease.

The clerk of the general meetings shall be paid his allowance, upon producing an order from the lord lieutenant, or three deputies; and the clerks of the subdivision meetings, upon producing a like order from our deputy lieutenant, which orders shall discharge receivers general.

Regimental and battalion clerks shall give security for paying and accompting for the monies received by them; the bonds shall be lodged with the receivers general, and put in suit by them on non-performance of the condition; and they shall be entitled thereupon to full costs and charges, and 5 l. per cent. of the money recovered;

APPENDIX to the CHRONICLE. [131

recovered; the residue to be accounted for to the auditor,

The regimental and battalion clerks, and captains of independent companies, shall deliver in accompts of their receipts and disbursements, and pay over the balance to the receivers general: who shall transmit the accompts into the auditor's office. Penalties, &c. shall be recoverable in any court of record.

No fee shall be payable for any warrant or sum of money issued in pursuance of this act.

Heads of the act for preventing frauds and abuses in relation to the sending and receiving of letters and packets free from the duty of postage, which received the royal assent on the 18th of April, 1764.

The Preamble.

WHEREAS, under colour of the privilege of sending and receiving post letters by members of parliament, free from the duty of postage, many great and notorious frauds have been, and still are, frequently practised, as well in derogation of the honour of parliament, as to the detriment of the public revenue; divers persons having presumed to counterfeit the hand, and otherwise fraudulently make use of the names, of members of parliament, upon letters and packets to be sent by the post, in order to avoid the payment of the duty of postage *.

And whereas the allowance of sending and receiving letters and packets free from the duty of postage, heretofore granted to, or customarily exercised by, certain persons not being members of parliament, in respect of their offices, has not been sufficiently confined to such letters and packets only as relate to the business of their respective offices, and may therefore, if continued without further restrictions and limitations, be liable to great abuse: in order, therefore, to put the more effectual stop to these and the like frauds and abuses, and at the same time to ascertain, for the better guidance and direction of his majesty's post master general, and the officers to be employed under him, in the performance of their duty, by what persons only, and under what regulations or restrictions, the privilege or allowance of sending and receiving letters and packets free from the duty of postage shall thenceforth be enjoyed and exercised: May it please your majesty, that it may be enacted, and be it enacted, &c.

That from and after 1st May, 1764, while the revenue of the post office shall continue to be carried to the aggregate fund, no letters or packets shall be exempted from postage, but such as shall be sent from or to the king; and such, not exceeding two ounces in weight, as shall be sent during the session of parliament, or within forty days before or after sum-

* It appeared, on examining witnesses previous to the passing of this bill, that a waiter at one of the coffee houses of this city made a practice of selling counterfeit franks at the rate of about a crown a dozen.

mons or prorogation, and be signed on the outside by a member of either house, and the whole of the superscription to be of such member's writing; or, directed to a member, at his usual residence, or place where he shall then be, or at the house, &c. of parliament.

And in like manner, letters and packets sent from and to places in Ireland, during the session there, or within forty days before or after summons or prorogation, signed and directed by a member of that kingdom as aforesaid.

Also all letters and packets to the lord high treasurer, or commissioners, and secretaries to the treasury; lord high admiral, commissioners and secretaries to the admiralty; principal secretaries of state, and their under secretaries; commissioners for trade and plantations, or their secretary; secretary at war, or his deputy; lieutenant general or other chief governor or governors of Ireland; or their chief secretary, or secretary for the provinces of Ulster and Munster; their secretary residing in Great Britain; the under secretary, and first clerk, in the office in Ireland of the chief secretary; and the first clerk in the office of the secretary for Ulster and Munster; the postmaster general, or deputy, for Scotland, Ireland, and America; the secretary, or deputy of the postmaster general; farmer of the bye and cross-road letters; surveyors of the post-office; and letters and packets sent from any of the said offices, signed by them on the outside, and the whole superscription of their writing; and letters and packets from the trea-

sury, admiralty office, office of the secretaries of state, plantation office, war office, general post office at London, chief offices at Edinburgh, Dublin, and America, indorsed for the king's service, and sealed with the seal of office, or of the principal officer in the department.

Commissioners of the treasury and admiralty, the secretaries of state, commissioners for trade and plantations, secretary at war, postmaster general, and his deputies, are empowered to authorize certain persons in their respective offices, of whom lists to be transmitted to the general post office, London, to indorse the letters and packets upon the king's service, and seal the same with the seal of office, &c. None to be so indorsed and sealed, but by direction of their superior officer, or which concerns the business of the office, on forfeiture of 5*l.* for the first offence, to be recovered and applied as by act 9 *Annæ* is directed; and for the second offence, the offender to be dismissed.

Persons appointed to make such indorsements, not to exceed two in any office, admiralty and war offices excepted; and in the admiralty not to exceed eight in time of peace, and twelve in time of war; and in the war office, not to exceed six in time of peace, and ten in time of war,

Where any privileged person, disabled from writing the whole superscription, shall authorize some person to sign his name upon, and write the superscription, and give notice thereof, under his hand and seal, to the postmaster general, letters and packets so
signed

signed and subscribed shall go free.

Printed votes, and proceedings in parliament, and news-papers, sent without covers, or in covers open at the sides, and signed on the outside by a member, or directed to a member, according to notice given by him to the postmaster general, or his deputy at Edinburgh or Dublin, are to go free.

Clerks in the offices of the secretaries of state, and post-office, being duly licensed, may continue to frank the votes, and proceedings in parliament, and news-papers, as heretofore; sending the same without covers, or in covers open at the sides.

The postmaster general, and officers under him, may search any packet sent without a cover, or in a cover open at the sides; and if they shall find any other paper or thing inclosed therein, or there shall be any writing other than the superscription upon the printed paper or cover, the whole of such packet is to be charged with the postage.

If any person shall, after 1 June, 1764, counterfeit the writing of any person in the superscription of any letter or packet, to avoid the postage, he shall be adjudged of felony, and be transported for seven years.

Remarks on the above act.

These are the heads, of the act; to which the postmaster general, in an advertisement, reciting

its contents, has added, the following notice: viz. "That all carriers, coachmen, watermen, wherry-men, dispersers of news-papers, higlers, and all other persons whatsoever hereafter detected in the illegal collecting, conveying, or delivering of letters and packets, will be prosecuted with the utmost severity. The penalty is five pounds for every letter so collected or delivered, contrary to law, and one hundred pounds for every week such practice is continued: one moiety to his majesty, and the other to the informer."

Upon examination before the committee, it appeared that the postage of freed letters amounted, one year with another, to 170,000 l.

Those, on whom this abridgement of the privilege of franking will fall the heaviest, seem to be the clerks in the secretaries of state's office; some of the clerks of the post-office acknowledged before the house, that the profits accruing to them from franking news-papers, &c. amounted from 800 l. to 1200 l. a year, each; and to one in particular 1700 l. a year; while the gentlemen belonging to the secretaries of state's offices, to whom the great secrets* of government are necessarily entrusted, have no more than 100 l. a year salary, and this privilege in no proportion to the post-office clerks. It is somewhat extraordinary, therefore, as a writer in their behalf ob-

* It perhaps may not be generally known, that all the important dispatches between our ministers abroad, and those at home, are written in cypher; it necessarily happens, therefore, that all the confidential letters are entrusted to the decyphering clerks before either his majesty or his ministers can know a syllable of their contents.

serves, that, how many pensions and salaries are daily granted and augmented, whenever the justice or the generosity of the legislature is applied to, no other notice should be taken of these gentlemen but to involve them in a prohibition, which will almost annihilate their former means of subsistence. For what now remains of the perquisite of franking news-papers, will become almost the entire property of persons, who have no other title to it than that of prescription.

Heads of the act for the better regulating of buildings, and preventing mischiefs that may happen by fire, within the weekly bills of mortality, and other places therein mentioned, which received the royal assent on the 5th of April, 1764.

THE preamble, after reciting part of the act of 11 Geo. I. for the better regulation of buildings, &c. so far as relates to pulling down or rebuilding party-walls between house and house, confined to cases in which one of the houses is to be erected; or party-walls may be so far out of repair as to render it necessary to pull down and rebuild the same, although neither of the adjoining houses require to be rebuilt; or party-walls may be so far defective and bad, by falling out of the perpendicular, as to become unsafe for the builder of the next house to rest timbers thereon, or oblige such builder to run his timbers quite through, whereby fire may be more readily communi-

cated from house to house, contrary to the intentions of the said act; subsumes that the workmen appointed by the said act to examine party walls, are often equally divided in opinion about the necessity of pulling down and rebuilding them, whereby a certificate from the major part cannot be obtained, and the purposes of the said act are in many instances evaded: wherefore it is enacted, that, from and after passing this present act, so much of the said act as relates to party-walls within the city and liberty of Westminster, or any parish, precinct, or place comprised within the weekly bills of mortality, or within the parishes of Saint Mary le Bone, Paddington, Chelsea, and Saint Pancras, in the county of Middlesex (except the city of London and liberty thereof, and also except the party-walls of houses on the river Thames below bridge) shall extend, and be construed to extend, in all cases whatsoever, within the said liberties, &c. aforesaid, where it is, or shall be necessary to pull down and rebuild any party-wall, whether any of the adjoining houses shall, or shall not be, or require to be, rebuilt or new built.

That in case the major part of the workmen, appointed to view the party-walls of any such house or houses intended to be pulled down, shall not, within one calendar month after such appointment, sign a certificate; it shall be lawful for any two or more of his majesty's justices of the peace, residing in or near the place, upon application of the owner, or occupiers, of either houses,

houses, to name and appoint one other able workman to be added to the workmen appointed by virtue of the said recited act, who, on ten days notice given, shall meet, and view the party-wall proposed to be taken down; and they, or the major part of them, certifying that the same is defective, and ought to be pulled down, it shall be lawful to and for the owner, or occupier, to cause the same to be pulled down and rebuilt, and a moiety of the expenses thereof recoverable.

That, to prevent the fatal consequences of fire, all party-walls built within Westminster, &c. after the expiration of three calendar months from the passing thereof, shall be two and a half bricks thick in the cellar, two bricks thick upwards to the garret floor, and one brick and a half thick at least eighteen inches above the roofs or gutters; to be built of stone, or good sound burnt brick, and none other.

That, after the expiration of the said time, no timbers (except those of the girders, binding joists, and templets under the same) nor timbers of the roof (except purlins or kerbs) be laid into party-walls; and that the ends of girders and binding joists, lying within such walls, shall not exceed nine inches, the ends of which in adjoining houses shall be at least fourteen inches distant. That nine inches at least of solid brick work shall be between the ends of all lintels, wall plates, and bond timbers, which shall be laid in or upon the walls of the fore and back fronts of all houses which shall adjoin to each other.

That if any builder, master

bricklayer, or workman, shall erect, or cause to be erected or built, any party-wall, contrary to the directions of the act, or use, in building, any other than good sound-burnt bricks, or shall lay any timber in any party-wall contrary to the true intent and meaning thereof; he shall, for every offence, forfeit and pay 50l.

That from and after the first day of July, 1764, no timbers whatsoever be laid or placed under the hearth of any room, or within nine inches of the funnel or flew of the chimneys, of any house within the limits aforesaid.

That no timber buildings whatsoever be built adjoining to any house, so as the timbers thereof be laid in the wall of any such house, built, or to be built, under the like penalty of 50l.

And that no person, on any pretence whatsoever shall cut into or wound any party-wall, erected or built pursuant to the directions of the act, nor lay into the same any other timbers than are thereby allowed, under the like penalty of 50l.

That from and after the first day of July 1764, every master builder, who shall erect or build any house within the limits aforesaid, shall, within fourteen days after it is covered in, cause the same to be surveyed by one or more surveyors; who are to make oath, before a justice of the peace, that the same has been built and erected agreeable to the directions of the act. The master builder, for every such neglect or default, forfeits 50l.

That in all cases where disputes may arise between the owners of adjoining houses, concerning any parts

parts intermixed over or under each other, in such manner that a party-wall cannot be effectually built upon the old foundation, without pulling down some parts of the one or the other; the justices of the peace, in the general or quarter sessions, on application made to them, are authorised to examine into the dispute, issue out their order to the sheriff, or other proper officer, to summon a jury to view the premises, try the facts, and fix the value of any damages that may arise by verdict; the justices order on such verdict declared to be final.

The directors of insurance offices within London and Westminster are authorised, upon application of any person interested in or intitled unto any houses or buildings burnt down or damaged by fire, or where there is a suspicion that owners, occupiers, &c. who have insured such houses, have been guilty of fraud, or wilfully setting them on fire, with a view of gaining to themselves the insurance money, to cause the said money to be laid out and expended, towards the rebuilding and repairing such houses, unless the party claiming the insurance money shall, within sixty days after such claim, give security to the directors, that the same be laid out and expended as aforesaid.

Expence of party-walls, pulled down and rebuilt, in pursuance of the act of 11 Geo. I. or those built in pursuance of this act, after the 1st of July 1764, to be estimated between parties at the rate of 6l. 10s. per rod.

That after three calendar months from passing the act, the back, and fore-fronts, and party-walls of all

future buildings, be erected of stone, or of good sound hard well-burnt bricks, and none other, from the breast-summer upwards; and that the breast-summer in all houses shall not be higher than the floor of the one-pair of stairs.

In cases of fire, the keepers of other large engines are equally intitled with parish engines to the reward granted by act 6 Ann.

Actions are restricted to six months after the fact is done.

The penalties are to be levied, upon conviction, by warrant of two or more justices of the peace, by distress of goods; one moiety to the informer, the other to the poor of the parish: and for want of such distress, the offender to be imprisoned for six months: or the penalty may be sued for and recovered in any of the courts of Westminster.

Parishioners and inhabitants of the parish where any offence against the act shall be committed (except persons receiving alms) shall be admitted and allowed competent witnesses.

The act deemed and declared to be a public act.

An account of the parliamentary inquiry, made in March 1764, into the causes of the then high price of provisions.

Several of the most considerable butchers, and some victuallers of ships in London, being called upon by the parliament, agreed in stating the present price of the best beef to be three-pence per pound to the vender, which is about one half-penny dearer than beef

beef of the same goodness has usually been in the month of March for some years past, to which point all the witnesses were brought in giving their evidence, as it was thought necessary, in determining a comparative price, to adhere to the same month, to the same meat, and of the same goodness.

The witnesses stated the present price of the choice pieces of the best beef to be, to the consumer, four-pence and four-pence farthing per pound; the best pieces of inferior beef three-pence, or three-pence farthing; and the coarse pieces of beef, in general, from seven-farthings to two-pence half-penny and two-pence three-farthings, which is one half-penny dearer than the same have usually been in the month of March.

An eminent victualler of the East-India company's ships agreed with the butchers in their representation of the present price of provisions, and added, that he did not recollect that the same sorts had ever been sold for a higher price during the last war: and a Virginia merchant confirmed this evidence by the comparative prices of his own charge, in victualling his ships for Virginia, which he said he victualled in March, 1763, at the rate of twenty-four or twenty-five shillings per hundred weight for beef: whereas he, this year, gave twenty-seven shillings for the same weight and sort. The butchers also admitted the present price of mutton to be higher than it used to be in March, but they stated the increase differently from a

farthing to a half-penny per pound.

To discover the causes of this increase of price, some salesmen were examined, who alledged, first, the greater demand from an increase in the present consumption, of London; but, upon stricter examination, they produced no conclusive, or, indeed, probable evidence, to prove any such increase of habitation, or of consumption, as they supposed. They then accounted for this increase of the price of meat by the want of pork at market, proceeding from the great plenty of acorns in 1762, which induced all the feeders to fatten their whole stock of hogs in that year; and this extraordinary slaughter they said is not yet replaced; and that the want of one article, in the general provisions of so populous a city as London, has necessarily advanced the price of other species; the whole demand acting upon the whole quantity of the different sorts of provision as upon one and the same subject. They added also, that the wet season had much lessened the weight of even fat cattle; that the great scarcity of fodder, in 1762, had reduced the breed and stock; and that the failure in the crop of turneps in several counties, this year, had prevented those counties fattening the usual quantities of beasts. They assigned also the low price of hides and tallow, as an additional reason. But, upon further examination, all the salesmen and butchers admitted that the present high price is not intirely or exclusively the effect of natural causes, but an artificial price, resulting from combinations, and the

the want of better regulations for the sale of cattle in open markets.

In support of this opinion, they informed the parliament of a method now practised, of buying large quantities of sheep and oxen upon the road to market, in order to forestall the market of that day, and fix the price by the will of a few engrossers; and of another species of forestalling, in which persons buy great numbers of sheep and oxen, and, after slaughter, sell the carcases whole to the lesser butchers, and thereby set the market price to them, and advance the retail price. And all the witnesses concurred in declaring, that, if these combinations and arts for gaining and keeping the command of the markets in a few hands could be obviated and prevented, the summer and winter price of meat, of all sorts, would be more reasonable.

They were clearly of opinion, that, at this very time, there is no want of fat cattle; and they urged with great force, in support of that judgment, that through the whole month of March, when provisions have been so very dear in London, beef, mutton, and veal, have been at a moderate and usual price in the markets of the several counties within thirty miles round the metropolis.

Arguments brought by the Spaniards for refusing payment of the ransom bills, for preserving Manila from pillage and destruc-

tion, with an abstract of colonel Draper's refutation thereof, in a letter addressed to the earl of Halifax.

Arguments, &c.

THE English generals, who made themselves masters of Manila, proposed, on the fifth of October, 1762, a capitulation to the archbishop, who acted as governor; by which they promised to preserve the city from pillage, if the governor and principal magistrates would consent to, and sign the articles of, the said capitulation; which they were forced to do, being threatened to be put to the sword, in case of refusal.

Notwithstanding this shameful capitulation, extorted and signed by the means of violence and rigour, general Draper ordered or suffered the city to be sacked and pillaged, for forty hours, by four thousand English, who plundered it of more than a million of dollars.

Therefore the said capitulation ought to be void, because it was signed by force; and because general Draper first violated and broke the capitulation, by permitting the city to be pillaged; consequently, that capitulation only, which was proposed by the governor, accepted of and signed by admiral Cornish, and general Draper, upon the seventh of October, ought to be considered and respected in this affair.

The first article of which grants to the inhabitants of Manila the peaceable quiet possession of all their effects; the fourth and sixth,

sixth, liberty of commerce, under the protection of his Britannic majesty.

Refutation, &c.

It is a known and universal rule of war among the most civilized nations, that places taken by storm, without any capitulation, are subject to all the miseries that the conquerors may chuse to inflict.

Manila, my lord, was in this horrid situation; of consequence, the lives of the inhabitants, with all belonging to them, were entirely at our mercy. But Christianity, humanity, the dignity of our nation, and our own feelings as men, induced us not to exert the utmost rigour of the possession, against those wretched suppliants; although my own secretary, lieutenant Fryer, had been murdered, as he was carrying a flag of truce to the town. The admiral and I told the archbishop and principal magistrates, that we were desirous to save so fine a city from destruction, ordered them to withdraw, consult, and propose such terms of compensation as might satisfy the fleet and army, and exempt them from pillage, and its fatal consequences.

The proposals they gave in were the very same, which the Spaniards most artfully call a second capitulation; and were afterwards agreed to, and confirmed by us (with a few restrictions); but at that time were so unsuitable to their desperate situation, that we rejected them as unsatisfactory and inadmissible. As conquerors, we took the pen, and dictated

those terms of the ransom which the Spaniards thought proper to submit to: for they had the alternative, either to be passive under the horrors of a pillage, or compound for their preservation; they accepted the latter.

The objection and pretence of force and violence may be made use of to evade any military agreements whatsoever, where the two parties do not treat upon an equality; for who, in war, will submit to an inconvenient and prejudicial compact, unless from force? But have the Spaniards forgot their own histories? Or will they not remember the just indignation expressed against Francis the first, who pleaded the like subterfuge of force and violence, to evade the treaty made after the battle of Pavia, and his captivity?

Should such elusive doctrines prevail, it will be impossible, hereafter, for the vanquished to obtain any quarter or terms whatsoever: the war will be carried on *usque ad internecionem*; and if a sovereign shall refuse to confirm the conditions stipulated by his subjects, who are in such critical situations, the consequences are too horrid to mention.

By the same fallacious sophistry, a state may object to the payment of the ransoms of ships taken at sea, and to contributions levied in a country which is the seat of war. But it is always allowed that, in such cases, a part must be sacrificed to save the whole; and surely, when by the laws of war we were intitled to the whole, it was a great degree of moderation to be contented with a part.

The destruction that we could have

have occasioned, would have trebled the loss they suffer by the payment of the ransom. The rich churches and convents, the king of Spain's own palace, with its superb and costly furniture, the magnificent buildings of every sort, the fortifications, docks, magazines, founderies, cannon, and in short, the whole might have been entirely ruined, the Spanish empire in Asia subverted, and the fruits of their religious mission lost for ever, together with the lives of many thousands of the inhabitants, who were spared by our humanity. As a suitable and grateful return for this lenity, the Spanish memorial affirms, that after the capitulation was signed general Draper ordered, or permitted, the city to be sacked or pillaged for forty hours together, by four thousand English, who plundered it of more than a million of dollars.

As my own character, both as an officer and a man of honour, is so wickedly attacked by this unjust accusation, I must beg leave to state the whole affair in its true light; and do appeal for its veracity to the testimonies of every officer and soldier who served in the expedition, and to all the marine department.

We entered Manila by storm, on the 6th of October, 1762, with an handful of troops, whose total amounted to little more than two thousand; a motley composition of seamen, soldiers, seapoys, cafres, lascars, topasees, French and German deserters.

Many of the houses had been abandoned by the frightened inhabitants, and were burst open by the

violence of shot, or explosion of shells. Some of these were entered and pillaged. But all military men know how difficult it is to restrain the impetuosity of troops in the first fury of an assault, especially when composed of such a variety and confusion of people, who differed as much in sentiments and languages, as in dress and complexion.

Several hours elapsed, before the principal magistrates could be brought to a conference; during that interval the inhabitants were undoubtedly great sufferers. But, my lord, this violence was antecedent to our settling the terms of the capitulations; and by the laws of war, the place, with all its contents, became the unquestionable property of the captors, until a sufficient equivalent was given in lieu of it. That several robberies were committed, after the capitulation was signed, is not to be denied; for avarice, want, and rapacity, are ever insatiable; but that the place was pillaged for forty hours, and that pillage authorised and permitted by me, is a most false and infamous assertion. The people of Manila, my lord, have imposed upon their court by a representation of facts which never existed; and to make such a groundless charge the reason for setting aside and evading a solemn capitulation, is a proceeding unheard of till now, and as void of decency as common sense.

The following extracts from the public orders, given out the very day we entered the town, will sufficiently convince your lordship, of my constant attention to the preservation of those ungrateful people;

people; who have almost taught me to believe, that humanity and compassion are crimes.

Extracts.

October 6th, Manila.

“ The utmost order and regularity to be observed.

All persons guilty of robberies, or plundering the churches and houses, will be hanged without mercy.

The guards to send frequent patrols both day and night, to prevent disorders.

The drummers to beat to arms, the officers to assemble with their men, and call the rolls.

The adjutants to go round the town, and take an exact account of the safe-guards, posted for the protection of the convents, churches, and houses.”

October 7th.

“ All the inhabitants of Manila are to be looked upon and treated as his Britannic majesty’s subjects: They having agreed to pay four millions of dollars, for the ransom and preservation of their city and effects.

The criminals executed for robbery and sacrilege, to be buried at sunset.”

Memorial of Charles Howard, Esq; of Greystock, and Miss Frances Howard, of the family of Norfolk, in England; presented to the British ambassador at Paris, concerning a claim of theirs to the effects of a relation who died in France. Translated from the French.

MR. and Miss Howard, and with them all the English

nation, do, by the good offices of the ambassador, claim the execution of the XIIIth article of the treaty of Utrecht, and of the declaration of 1739, by both which the subjects of Great Britain are allowed to succeed to the personal estates of their relations deceased in France; in the same manner as the subjects of the most christian king are authorised to inherit the like estates of their relations dying in England.

The laws have been executed, in this particular, with the utmost exactness on the part of the English.

They can bring the most authentic proofs, and are able to maintain by a number of examples, which have happened even during the late war, that this execution has been totally in favour of the French; insomuch that, even when there was no precise law upon this point, the usage alone, which was practised in England, was sufficient to give this nation a right to exact from France a reciprocity which is founded on the right of nature and nations. It is by the favour of these different titles, that Mr. and Miss Howard presume to demand their part of a succession to the personal estate of their uncle, who died in France; and yet the judges of the Chatelet, before whom their claim was at first carried, have not judged proper to admit it; and their sentence has been confirmed by an arret.

It was difficult to conceive what could be the motives for such singular decisions; especially if it be considered, that the succession in question was open before the late war.

Mr. and Miss Howard were in Eng-

England at the time they received the news, by a letter from their attorney. If they can believe this letter, the judges were determined against them for two powerful reasons, which were proposed by the king's advocate to the Chatelet: the one, that the treaty of Utrecht, on which they founded their claim, had not been registered in parliament: the other, that the argument does not hold good, of the French being admitted to succeed to the personal estates of their relations who die in England; because that admission is not founded, say they, on the treaty of Utrecht, but on the constitution of that kingdom, which admits to that kind of succession other foreigners, equally with French; whereas, according to the constitution of France, they cannot be allowed there but by virtue of a naturalization, or of a particular treaty, duly registered.

Although this was sufficiently refuted by the words of the treaty of Utrecht, and the declaration of 1739, which makes no distinction in the reputed quality of relations, according to which they ought to succeed; nevertheless, to set it more effectually aside, the late M. Simon de Mofart, who was charged with the defence of Mr. and Miss Howard, thought proper to have it consulted in England, in order to know what was the custom there in this case. The case was at first stated in this manner.

If an Englishman born happens to die in England, without children, and intestate, and having relations born, and always residing in France, it is asked, Will they be intitled to partake the succession to the personal estate of the de-

funct, equally with his relations in the same degree of kindred, born and educated in England?

The answer given to this question was conceived in the following manner:

The council having considered, is of opinion, that, in consequence of the statutes of distribution, the relations born in France have the same right to personal estates as those born in England.

This answer not having entirely satisfied the French advocate, in that it only spoke of the statute of distribution, and not of the treaty of Utrecht, the execution of which was the principal debate in this cause; he resumed the enquiry, and desired that the English council would give his opinion upon the following question: it is asked.

How do they in England understand and execute the XIIIth article of the treaty of Utrecht? and if, in consequence of this treaty, a Frenchman living in France could succeed to an Englishman, his relation, dying in England, being equally related with the English heirs of the deceased residing in England? and what are the reasons upon which the English ground their admission of the Frenchman to succeed with the others?

The following is the next answer, which was sent from England:

The usage of England is exactly agreeable to the XIIIth article of the treaty of Utrecht; the French relations being admitted to succeed, equally with English relations in the same degree of kindred, to the personal estate of an intestate dying in England. The law

law of England does not, in this respect, make any distinction between foreigners and natural-born subjects, and is conformed to the constitution of the emperor Frederick II. tit. 1. sect. 10. and is founded as well on natural justice, as commercial reasons.

It is to be observed, that this clear and express opinion is signed by the lord chief justice of England, by the king's advocate and attorney-general, and consequently that it has all the marks of authority that any one can desire in matters of this kind.

In short, independently of the proofs which resulted from these pieces, Mr. and Miss Howard offered farther to justify, by the registers of the courts of justice in England, a crowd of examples of successions of personal estates, which have been recovered by French people of their English relations. They cited, among others, that of Mrs. Cantillon, a French woman, actually residing at the Nouvelles Catholiques, in Paris, who having claimed, during the last war, the personal estate of Mr. John Cantillon, her nephew, who died in Ireland, in 1754, being a captain in one of his Britannic majesty's regiments, was put into possession of the effects of this succession, by the court of Doctors Commons, to the prejudice of his other relations; and she has received, in consequence, 6501. sterling, and the remainder to be remitted to her immediately.

So many proofs accumulated left no resource for the pretended argument of incapacity, which they had at first opposed to Mr. and Miss Howard: they waited patiently the success of their de-

mand, till they understood, with an extreme surprize, that it had been rejected by a sentence of the Chatelet. And the affair being afterwards carried before parliament, an arret was passed, which confirmed that sentence.

An account of the entertainment given his royal highness the Duke of York, at Venice.

THE morning after his royal highness arrived (25th May 1764) he received the compliments of the doge by four Venetian nobleman, who were ordered to attend him during his stay. The two following evenings his highness went to the opera. On the third day he visited the arsenal, where the Venetian nobility of both sexes were present to pay their respects to him. He was conducted to the different parts of this extensive building in a magnificent felucca built on purpose, and attended by three other feluccas, all rowed by men in the dress of English sailors, and the three last filled with English and other foreigners of distinction, and with noble Venetians. Three thousand hands were employed in building and fitting out ships and galleys; one of which was put upon the stocks in the presence of his royal highness, which he was surprized to see nearly compleated before he left the arsenal. Having visited the several docks, the rope-walks, the forges, &c. he was at length conducted to the grand armory, where a concert of music was prepared, and from the balcony of which he saw the shews called *Le force*

forze d'Ercole, and the *Mareffa* dance, with which his highness expressed the greatest pleasure. On his return, he was conducted back by the noblemen appointed to attend him.—But all this was little in comparison to what was preparing for the further entertainment of his royal highness. The four noble attendants, animated with an earnest desire to answer the intentions of their republic, devised public races upon the great canal, and fixed the exhibition of them to the 4th of June, his Britannic majesty's birth-day.—The numerous and splendid barges, that appeared on this occasion, set out from the lower end of the great canal about three in the afternoon, and advancing towards the Rialto bridge, followed the course of the great canal to the mount of St. Anthony, where, the signal being given, his highness saw many competitors in a boat with one oar start, and in a bissona saw the whole of the race, which passing along the great canal and returning back to the middle of it, formed a course of about four miles, and ended at a conspicuous structure, erected upon barges, representing the palace of Joy; in the front of the first story of which appeared Venice embracing Britain. The first race being over, his royal highness was pleased to go to a palace upon the great canal, fitted up and adorned on purpose, where, from a balcony, surrounded with ladies and gentlemen, he saw the four subsequent races. In the mean time, in sight of above two hundred thousand spectators, nine magnificent peotas moved slowly, about the canal, amidst several thousand gondolas and other light barges; while the swift and equal-

ly rich bissonas and margorotas, with young nobles, attended, armed with bows and pellets, and cleared the way for the racers.—The four first peotas represented the four elements; the first of them, entirely silvered over, and symbolizing the element of Water, represented the triumph of Neptune, adorned with figures of tritons, sword-fish, dolphins, &c. The second expressed the Earth, symbolized in the goddess Cybele, crowned with towers, and adorned with various products, plants, flowers, and animals, the whole being gilt and silvered over. The third was sky-colour and silver, denoting the element of Air, expressed by the rape of Orithya by Boreas, with Zephyrs and Cupids playing around in the air. The fourth was of flame-colour, with ornaments of silver, indicating the element of Fire, admirably expressed by the forge of Vulcan, Vulcan sweating at the anvil, with his naked Cyclops in gigantic figures, with Venus opposite in her car, drawn by doves, and with other allusions agreeable to the fable. These four peotas bore the arms quartered of the four attendants. The other five peotas were fitted out by their nearest relations. The first represented Great Britain led in triumph by Europe; the second shewed the whale-fishing, admirably represented; the third exhibited the triumph of Venus, in her car drawn by four doves; the fourth, the chariot of the sun, drawn by four horses, preceded by Aurora, in the act of dispersing night; the fifth and last, the triumph of Pallas, with trophies and allusions to that deity, &c. all rivaling each other in pomp, and glit-

glittering with silver and gold, particularly the various elegant dresses of the rowers, musicians, and other figures, in each peota, richly adorned with laces, besides the long fringes and tassels of silver playing upon the water. The singularity of the shew, possible to be executed only in Venice, animated the four noble deputies to manifest at once to the whole world, the sincere friendship of the republic towards the crown of Great-Britain. [Bissonas are barges of eight oars, margarottas of six, and ballitonas of four.]

Some account of the German emigrants, so hospitably received and provided for by this nation in the course of the present year.

Aug. 30. **T**HERE appeared in one of the daily papers a letter from Mr. Wachsell, minister of the German Lutheran church of St. George's in Goodman's-fields, giving an account, that about six hundred protestant Wurtzburghers and Palatines, of both sexes and all ages, brought over from their native country by a German officer, with a promise of being immediately sent to settle at his own expence in the island of St. John in America, being abandoned by him through an inability to make his promise good, were in the utmost danger of perishing for want of assistance, being too numerous to lie entirely on the hands of their countrymen here, who had already contributed handsomely to their relief; that about four hundred of them, having wherewith to pay their passage, were suffered to come ashore, whilst the rest were detained on board ship; that

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they were all in a manner without food, many without cloaths, and some sick, yet obliged to lie in the open fields, exposed to all the inclemencies of a rainy season; that one poor woman had been actually delivered there, and perished with her child for want of proper care and assistance; that these wretched beings would think themselves extremely happy, if the British government would be graciously pleased to take them under its protection, to allow them, for the present, some ground to lie on, tents to cover them, and any manner of subsistence, till it shall be thought proper to ship them off, and settle them in any of its colonies in America; where, he doubted not, they would give their protectors and benefactors constant proofs of their affection and gratitude for such kindness; but that they had no friend, who had interest enough to intercede effectually for them, or even knew the proper method of application, which was his reason for thus addressing the public.

It is scarce possible to express, how soon, and how powerfully, this letter worked on the charity of all ranks. That very morning they were supplied with one hundred tents from the Tower, with all necessaries thereto belonging, by orders of the king; and, before night, the passage of all the poor captives on board ship was paid, and they released from their wretched confinement in filth and nastiness, by the same bountiful hand. The tents from his majesty were soon followed by contributions from all quarters, some of one hundred pounds each, many of ten; and by express, and from unknown benefactors. Subscriptions were likewise opened at several coffee-houses,

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and

and collections made at several churches after sermons preached to enforce them; both with no small success. Their majesties sent a further contribution of 300 l. An eminent physician, a surgeon and man-midwife, and an apothecary, offered their personal assistance; so that, in two or three days, to the great honour of the nation, they saw themselves from the lowest state of wretchedness, many in a comfortable, all in a tolerable situation. Their most pressing wants being thus answered, the gentlemen, who had formed themselves into a committee for the application of these contributions, applied to his majesty to know his royal will with regard to them, and received a most gracious answer by lord Halifax, purporting, that they should be sent to, and established in, South Carolina, and one hundred and fifty stands of arms delivered for their defence.

Upon this, the committee published the following advertisement in regard to their passage; which advertisement we insert at large, as a striking specimen of the great attention of those gentlemen to the welfare of these poor people, and the great generosity of the subscribers, who enabled them to make so comfortable a provision.

“Wanted, two ships, of not less than 200 tons burthen, to carry the poor Palatines to South Carolina; not more than 200 persons in each ship. To be ready to sail in 10 days.

The necessaries that are expected to be provided, as follow:

One pound of bread, of 16 ounces, for each person, men, women, and children, every day.

One man, one woman, and three children to a mess.

Sunday, for each mess, a piece of beef, 4 lb. flour 3 lb. fruit, or suet, half-pound; and 1 quart of peas.

Monday, stockfish, 3 lb. butter, 1 lb. cheese, 1 lb. potatoes, 3 lb.

Tuesday, two pieces of pork, 6 lb. rice, 2 lb.

Wednesday, grits, 5 lb. butter, 2 lb. cheese, 2 lb.

Thursday, the same as Sunday, only potatoes instead of peas.

Friday, grey peas, two quarts; butter, 2 lb. cheese 2 lb.

Saturday, flour, 2 lb. fruit, half-pound; potatoes, 2 lb. butter, 2 lb. cheese, 2 lb.

Sufficient vinegar, pepper, and salt, every day.

A ton of water for every three persons.

Six quarts of good ship beer, each mess, for the first three weeks; and for the remainder of the voyage, a pint of British spirits each day.

Medicines, and a doctor to each ship, provided by the committee.

Half the freight to be paid before sailing from Gravesend; the other moiety at their delivery at South Carolina: deducting one-half of the second payment for every person that dies on their passage.

All that exceed fourteen years on the 1st of September, to be deemed whole passengers.

All under that age, two to be deemed as one passenger.

Security will be required for the exact performance of the contract.

Proposals may be left at the bar of Batson's coffee-house, Cornhill, for the committee, on or before Tuesday the 18th instant, at 12 o'clock.”

On the 5th of October, these poor people broke up their camp in the fields behind Whitechapel church, in order to embark.

qualified as commander in chief, for the former in such critical circumstances, and many considering M. Sullivan as indispensably necessary, as chairman, in the latter, whilst his lordship refused to act under any direction in which that gentleman had the lead. At last the dismal prospect of the company's affairs in India decided the dispute in favour of lord Clive, so that Mr. Sullivan had scarce votes enough to bring him into the direction.

But another difficulty still remained. Mir Jaffier, on his advancement to the nabobship by our victorious arms under lord Clive, then colonel Clive, had made over to the company a tract of country, whose annual rents amounted to 600,000*l.* reserving to himself the quit-rents, amounting to 30,000*l.* a year; and some time after he granted these quit-rents to the colonel, as an acknowledgement of his obligations to him. These quit-rents, commonly known by the name of Clive's jagheer, the company, through whose hands alone his lordship could receive them, thought proper to stop, under various pretences, particularly their being liable to make them good to the mogul, in case the arms of this monarch should ever gain the ascendancy in Bengal. These reasons lord Clive answered in a very satisfactory manner, and particularly that we have specified, which he refuted on principles assumed by the company in a dispute between them and the Dutch East India company. Arguments alone, however, proving insufficient to end the dispute, and his lordship thinking it, as indeed he had a just right, very improper for him to

engage in the company's service while there subsisted any difference between him and the company, he was requested to propose his terms, which he accordingly did. These were, that he should enjoy his jagheer for ten years, provided the company should remain so long in possession of those lands of which the jagheer is the quit-rent, and provided he should live so long; at the end of ten years, or at his death, if it should happen first, his right and title to the jagheer to cease; and, on his arrival in India, he to use his utmost endeavours with the nabob to secure the reversion of it to the company. Should his death happen early in this service, he submitted to the consideration of the directors and proprietors (but did not insist upon it,) whether it could not be continued to his heirs for five years. The company readily assented to every thing, except the continuance of the jagheer to his lordship's executors. But soon after, to prevent any such disputes for the future, it was resolved that none of their servants should accept of any such gratuity from any Indian prince or governor. Here we cannot help wishing, that the company had shewed itself as attentive to the honour of the nation, as to their own interest, by making some laws to prevent at least the shameful rapaciousness of their servants in the East Indies.

But to return. As soon as harmony was thus restored, lord Clive prepared for his voyage; and having obtained from his majesty the honour of the Bath, and the title of major general in India, he set out from London for that country on the 27th

of May, notwithstanding the news of many and great advantages obtained there under major Adams, which were received in the interim. [For an account of these advantages, and other interesting transactions in the East Indies, the reader is referred to the History, with which this volume opens.]

Some account of a remarkable robbery committed at lord Harrington's house, in the Stable-yard, St. James's, in December 1763.

IN the year 1762, lord Harrington was so unfortunate as to receive into his service, in the capacity of a porter, one John Wesket, who had before been associated with John Bradley, and James Cooper, in robbing the chambers of Henry Montague, esq; in Lincoln's Inn, and the house of Mr. William Burton, in Hatton Garden.

Both Bradley and Cooper had been livery servants; Bradley, in December 1763, when Wesket had lived about a year and half at lord Harrington's, was out of place; and Cooper, having before failed as a cheesemonger in Ratcliff Highway, kept a chandler's shop and coal cellar in New Turnstile, Holborn; Bradley at that time being his lodger.

Wesket, having formed a design to rob lord Harrington, took opportunities of going frequently, under various pretences, into the room in which his lordship usually sat, and in which there was a bureau where he kept his cash and notes.

By going thither to his lordship with a letter, though it was not

his business, he had seen the bureau open, while his lordship was counting money, and had remarked what part of the bureau it was kept in.

He had also been told by Mr. Bevel, his lordship's steward, that money had been received to pay bills; and when Bevel was asked in court how he came to give him this intelligence, he answered, that it was to apprize him of tradesmen receiving their money, that he might get from them, what nobleman's porters have, by the tyranny of custom, long exacted from their tradesmen, when paid, under the name of *perquisite*; and that he likewise told Wesket, that he would take care the tradesmen should come to the house to be paid, to ensure the levying of this tax.

Wesket having got this intelligence, and having acquainted himself with the bureau, and the particular part of it where the money was kept, he communicated his purpose of robbing his lord, to his old associate Bradley, and appointed him to come to assist in the fact on Saturday evening, the 5th of December, 1763, when he knew his lord and lady were to be at the opera; directing him at the same time to bring a brace of pistols and a tinder-box,

With what view the pistols were ordered does not appear, the robbery being to be perpetrated in secrecy and silence, where nobody could be present but the thieves, unless it was to secure their retreat, if they should be detected in the fact. The tinder-box was to be left behind, that the robber might be supposed not to be a domestic, nor sufficiently acquainted with

the house to know where to light a candle.

Bradley accordingly came, about eight o'clock in the evening, with his pistols and tinder-box. Wesket let him in at the door of the porter's lodge, and ordering him to walk softly, took him into a little room where he slept.—“ No-body,” says he, “ has a right to come hither; I will get you something to drink, and here you shall remain till the middle of the night, and then we will have my lord's money.”

Wesket immediately left him, locking him in, but returned soon afterwards with a bottle of rum; and Bradley then shewed him his pistols and tinder-box, which Wesket took from him, and then left him again. Wesket was afterwards to and again several times, but always locked the door, and took the key with him when he went away.

About twelve o'clock, lord and lady Harrington came home; and between one and two Wesket came to him, and told him the family were secure:—“ Take a draught of rum,” says he, “ have courage, and follow me.”

They then went into the kitchen, and Wesket shewed him a very high window, which opened with a pulley and string, telling him, that must be his way out when the business was done. To this Bradley objected, for a very good reason, because he did not know where he should come when he got out of the window. He said, however, that the purpose intended might be answered without trouble or risque; and immediately pulling off his shoes, which were dirty, he made the

mark of his foot upon the dresser, which it was necessary to mount to get at the window, and then he daubed the window and the wall, to make it appear that somebody with dirty feet had got out of it.

When this was done, they both went very softly to the bureau in my lord's study, when Wesket, giving Bradley the candle, took a gimblet and chissel out of his pocket, and broke open the bureau. He took out two bank notes, one for a hundred pounds, and the other for thirty, three gold snuff boxes, four hundred pounds in money, and other things, to the value of two thousand pounds: he gave this booty to Bradley, and, leaving the tinder-box behind, conducted him again down stairs, and then, giving him the pistols, he with great caution opened the street door and let him out, desiring he might not see him for a fortnight or three weeks. The street door he left ajar, fearing to shut it lest he should be heard, and went to bed.

Bradley made the best of his way with his booty to Cooper's house, having desired him to sit up for him: Cooper, however, when he came thither, was not at home, whereupon Bradley went about in search of him, but without success. Bradley then returned to his house and deposited the treasure, which he had carried about the street all night, in a kind of shed in the yard under no lock. It was then near four o'clock, and Cooper was not yet come home; he therefore went out again to seek him, and by accident met him near Temple-bar. It might reasonably be thought, that they would

would then have gone immediately back to secure the money; but instead of that they went both to a night-house, where they sat drinking together till it was light.

Cooper being acquainted with the business Bradley had done, and shewed the booty, put all but the negotiable notes and bills of private persons, which they destroyed, in a box, and buried it in his cellar.

It was very strange that Wesket and Bradley should be so careless to secure what they had with so much danger obtained. Wesket gave Bradley the whole booty without knowing its value, and Bradley suffered Cooper to keep it where he might at any time have access to it without his consent, or even knowledge; neither did he examine what he had got, till it had been thus deposited near a month.

When a maid servant of lord Harrington's came down stairs on Sunday morning, the day after the robbery, between seven and eight o'clock, she found the street door wide open; and, as she was laying the fire in the steward's room, Wesket came to the door, and asked her if she had let in an old man, that used to be frequently about the house; she said, no, but that the door was wide open when she came down stairs; upon which he turned away, and said, "D—n it, who could go and leave the door open?"

Between ten and eleven my lord came out of his chamber into the room where the bureau stood, and immediately perceived that it had been broke open. A search was immediately made to discover

where the thief had got in or out. The dirt on the dresser in the kitchen, and against the window, was observed, and the window also was found open; but as rogues are always cunning by halves, Wesket, when he contrived these appearances of persons having come in or out of that window, had not taken care to have him traced out of the place into which he must have come from the window; this place was inclosed with a wall about five feet high, and the top of the wall was overgrown with moss, so that, if any body had got over it, a mark must have been seen; the appearance therefore of dirt about the window, and its being open, only confirmed the notion, that the robbery must have been committed by a servant.

The steward went to the lodge and examined Wesket's shoes, which he found clean. The marks of a gimblet and chissel being found on the bureau, a little box of tools that was kept in a place where all the servants had access to it was searched, and a gimblet and chissel were found that exactly answered the marks. This was further evidence that a domestic was the thief. Lord Harrington, therefore, sent for Mr. Spinnage, a justice of peace, to examine the servants; and Wesket was chiefly suspected, as my lord's footman and valet de chambre were newly come, and the prisoner was the only person in the house, except the steward and a maid or two, that knew the drawers where the bills and money were; his box was searched, and a drinking-horn was found with sixteen guineas in it; but nothing else appearing,

and he alledging he had received it for wages, he was not taken into custody, nor did any thing appear that justified a suspicion of any other person in the family.

Wesket, however, was not long afterwards turned away. The first time Bradley saw him, after the robbery, was in a side box at the play. Bradley, who was in the gallery, met him as he came out, and they went together to a house in the Piazza, Covent Garden, where Wesket said every thing was safe, meaning that the enquiry had ended in nothing, and was satisfied with Bradley's account of the things.

After this they met several times, when Wesket blamed Bradley for not putting off the bank notes; Bradley then proposed to go abroad with them, having been abroad before; but Wesket telling him my lord was well known at all the courts of Europe, he determined to carry them to Chester fair.

To Chester, therefore, he went, at the Midsummer fair of 1764, and, pretending to be a young trader, he bought some linen of the Irish factors, and changed both his bank notes, taking linen and cash, and bills on persons in London, in exchange.

The bills they got accepted and paid, and had now reason to think themselves safe beyond a possibility of detection, if they did not betray each other. They were, however, discovered by an accident so remarkable, that it would probably have been blamed as exceeding probability, if it had been made an incident in a novel.

Some time after Wesket had been

discharged from his place, a gentleman happened to pick up a woman of the town, in Conduit-street; and, in the course of their conversation at a tavern, she told him, that she had been seduced, under pretence of marriage, by John Wesket, who lived porter with lord Harrington when he was robbed; and she gave such an account of his manner of dressing and living, that the gentleman brought her to Sir John Fielding.

She said, that she first became acquainted with Wesket, after his quitting lord Harrington's, that she had lived with him, that they had been parted about a month, but that she still went by his name. She gave an account, also, of his acquaintance, and among them, of Bradley, and put into the justice's hand some letters, which she had received from Wesket's acquaintance while she lived with him, among which was one written by Bradley. She said also, that she had very lately seen sixty guineas in Wesket's possession.

Sir John, upon this information, had Wesket taken into custody, and examined him; he also, upon searching his box, found sixty guineas. Wesket could not account satisfactorily for this money; but there being nothing else found, he was discharged, notwithstanding the suspicion against him was strengthened by the money.

An attempt was made to take Bradley into custody, but he could not be found.

In the mean time, lord Harrington, happening to have an exact description of the thirty pound bank note, had advertised it; and about

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about the 6th of September, just nine months after the robbery, his lordship received notice, that this note had been presented for payment by a banker's clerk. This note, being secured, was traced, through a great number of hands, to one Smith, a merchant of Liverpool, who, being applied to, declared, that he had it of Mr. Beath, a linen factor of Newry, in the North of Ireland.

Upon application by letter to Mr. Beath, to know of whom he received it, he wrote for answer, that he received it at Chester fair, in payment for some linen, of a person who called himself John Walker of London, a low, thin-faced pale man, somewhat pitted with the small pox, and slender, his eyes sore or inflamed, and a large tumour on his hand. Mr. Beath added, that he was a bad clerk, that he wore either a wig or his hair in a long queue; and in a postscript said, that he was dressed like a gentleman, but appeared somewhat under that standard in conversation.

This last distinction, which shews great good sense and nice discernment, was the characteristic of a man, who had lived as valet-de-chambre with persons of rank; it does not however appear, that either the justice or any other of the parties suspected this Walker to be Bradley, or that they enquired of the woman, whether Bradley's person corresponded with Mr. Beath's description; if they had, they would have taken a nearer way to their end. On the contrary, Mr. Bevel set out for Chester to enquire where Walker had

lodged, and by what carriage the cloth he bought had been sent to town, and how it was directed.

After much enquiry he found, that the person, who called himself Walker, lodged at one Rippington's, a shoemaker; and that he carried the linen away with him in a post-chaise towards London; he learnt also, that the boy, who drove the chaise the first stage from Chester to Whitchurch, brought a letter back to Rippington, desiring him to look behind the glass in the room where he had lain, for an old pocket-book, which he had left behind him, and to send it directed to John Walker, to be left at the Blossoms Inn in London, till called for; the book, however, could not be found, and Rippington soon after received another letter from London, as from a friend of Walker's, desiring him to send the book, which was not yet come to hand, and to advise him of the conveyance by a letter directed to Mr. Davis, at St. Clement's coffee-house in the Strand, London.

This letter Rippington gave to Bevel, and Bevel brought it to Sir John Fielding. The master of the coffee-house was ordered to stop the person who should come for a letter directed to Davis, which letter he had already received; but Bradley, who had assumed many names on various occasions, had forgot what name he ordered Rippington's answer to be directed to, and enquiring for it at the coffee-house by another name, he escaped detection.

Here then the hunters were at fault; but upon comparing the letter

ter written to Rippington, from London, and given by him to Bevel, and by Bevel to Sir John Fielding, with the letters that had been put into Sir John's hand by the woman, it appeared exactly to correspond with that written by Bradley; his father was found to live in Clerkenwell, and, with several others of his relations, examined; their description of his person was found minutely to agree with the description given of the supposed Walker by Mr. Beath, and it also came out, that he had been at Chester during the last Midsummer fair, and had lodged at one Cooper's, a chandler, in New Turnstile, Holborn. Upon this, Cooper was sent for, who said that Bradley had left his house about six weeks before, that he did not know whither he was gone, and that he took nothing away with him. Upon this Bradley was publicly advertised, handbills were dispersed all over the kingdom, persons planted at all the ale-houses he used to frequent, and every other method used to discover and apprehend him.

These steps produced a man who accidentally heard one Bradshaw, a coachman, who drives a jobb at Gerrard's Hall Inn, say in an ale-house, that he had got a large chest of Bradley's in his hay-loft; on this information, Bradshaw and the chest were sent for. The chest was found to contain the linen that was bought at Chester, and the coachman said he brought the chest in a coach about six weeks before from the house of one Cooper in Turnstile.

Cooper was then sent for again, and being confronted with Bradshaw, confessed what he had before obstinately denied, that he

knew of the chest going to Gerrard's Hall Inn. He was then threatened to be committed for concealing this circumstance, as an accessory after the fact, upon which he confessed, that he knew Wesket and Bradley committed the robbery on lord Harrington, Bradley having told him the very night it was committed, that he was going to Wesket, who was to conceal him in the house for that purpose, till the family was in bed. He added, that the booty had been buried in his cellar, where some part of it still remained.

The cellar was then searched; and the gold snuff-boxes, and several other things, were found, which were sworn to be lord Harrington's property.

Soon after, Bradley was apprehended in a sailor's habit at Wapping, and brought before Sir John Fielding; Cooper was there also, at the same time; and Bradley observing that he attempted to become evidence for the crown against him and Wesket, and that at the same time he denied and concealed many principal transactions relative to that and other robberies in which he had been concerned, he, at once, without any promise of favour, declared the whole truth; and it being the opinion of the magistrate and all present, that Wesket and Cooper were the greater villains, Bradley was admitted as an evidence against them. Wesket was indicted for the robbery, Cooper for receiving the goods; and both being convicted upon proof of the facts that have been related in this narrative, Wesket was executed, and Cooper transported for fourteen years.

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A List of the Supplies, and Ways and Means, from the Revolution to the End of the Year 1763.

		Summary of the total yearly Supplies.			Summary of the total yearly Ways and Means.		
1 st Will. & Mar. 1688	—	2.908,680	—	—	2.743,142	6	2
2 ———	9	3.588,191	10	—	3.768,191	10	—
3 ———	90	4.656,255	—	—	2.651,702	18	—
4 ———	1	3.676,677	16	3	1.816,702	18	—
5 ———	2	4.017,080	9	6	2.000,000	—	—
6 ———	3	5.549,087	15	7	5.588,506	5	10
7 ———	4	4.882,712	—	—	5.413,709	11	1
1 st William III.	5	5.537,853	19	11	8.161,469	—	—
2 ———	6	5.520,078	19	11	5.600,000	—	—
3 ———	7	8.237,210	18	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.184,015	1	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
4 ———	8	2.350,000	—	—	1.484,015	—	—
5 ———	9	981,342	—	—	1.000,000	—	—
6 ———	1700	2.886,536	14	6	2.620,000	—	—
7 ———	1	4.380,045	11	—	6.913,628	15	5 $\frac{3}{4}$
1 st Anne	2	3.535,457	7	2	3.887,630	—	—
2 ———	3	4.005,369	8	6	4.200,000	—	—
3 ———	4	4.717,488	3	4	4.914,888	3	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 ———	5	5.075,761	16	2	5.282,233	17	2
5 ———	6	5.941,841	14	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	6.142,381	15	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
6 ———	7	5.926,849	18	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	6.189,067	15	6 $\frac{3}{4}$
7 ———	8	6.563,138	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6.868,839	—	—
8 ———	9	6.425,268	10	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	6.896,552	9	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
9 ———	1710	14.370,744	5	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	16.246,325	—	—
10 ———	11	6.671,386	1	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6.304,615	16	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
11 ———	12	3.520,072	10	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.400,000	—	—
12 ———	13	3.062,079	3	11	3.100,000	—	—
1 st George I.	14	3.282,223	16	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	} 7.317,751	15	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 ———	15	2.053,363	5	11 $\frac{1}{2}$			
3 ———	16	3.697,767	13	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	3.211,313	1	—
4 ———	17	2.644,437	4	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.229,514	3	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
5 ———	18	2.989,109	11	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.735,509	3	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
6 ———	19	2.623,537	14	9 $\frac{7}{10}$	2.742,000	17	10 $\frac{3}{4}$
7 ———	1720	2.738,156	3	2 $\frac{7}{10}$	2.920,264	13	8
8 ———	1	2.923,108	18	12 $\frac{1}{10}$	2.719,412	10	9
9 ———	2	1.935,054	16	6 $\frac{13}{10}$	1.837,799	8	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
10 ———	3	1.863,888	6	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.730,744	19	5 $\frac{3}{4}$
11 ———	4	1.823,229	4	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.782,212	—	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
12 ———	5	2.978,954	1	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.282,328	6	7 $\frac{3}{4}$
13 ———	6	2.895,305	—	7	3.173,287	12	1 $\frac{1}{4}$

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1 st	George II.	1727	—	5.392,966	2	— $\frac{3}{4}$	—	5.544,594	2	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
2	—	—	8	3.224,697	14	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	3.540,478	10	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
3	—	—	9	3.345,190	17	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	3.530,766	12	11
4	—	—	1730	2.752,833	5	4	—	3.826,825	7	— $\frac{3}{4}$
5	—	—	1	2.784,705	3	— $\frac{1}{4}$	—	2.883,180	2	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
6	—	—	2	3.004,926	13	11	—	2.887,943	6	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
7	—	—	3	3.870,230	17	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	3.989,689	11	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
8	—	—	4	3.150,452	4	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	3.269,000	—	—
9	—	—	5	3.225,903	15	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	3.380,565	6	10
10	—	—	6	3.025,172	9	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	3.269,000	—	—
11	—	—	7	3.444,246	—	6	—	3.769,000	—	—
12	—	—	8	2.633,328	9	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	2.908,506	9	9
13	—	—	9	3.874,076	3	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	4.097,831	11	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
14	—	—	1740	5.017,651	—	5	—	5.039,102	18	3 $\frac{3}{4}$
15	—	—	1	5.723,537	12	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	6.188,065	11	5
16	—	—	2	5.912,483	12	3	—	6.119,157	13	10 $\frac{3}{4}$
17	—	—	3	6.283,537	14	— $\frac{1}{4}$	—	6.624,065	11	5
18	—	—	4	6.462,902	3	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	6.609,310	5	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
19	—	—	5	7.088,353	10	10	—	7.303,065	11	5
20	—	—	6	9.402,978	9	5	—	9.400,574	10	7
21	—	—	7	10.059,104	8	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	10.088,065	11	5
22	—	—	8	8.082,409	1	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	8.018,007	4	4
23	—	—	9	4.014,136	19	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	4.313,730	—	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
24	—	—	1750	4.969,635	10	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	5.175,023	11	7
25	—	—	1	3.907,435	7	7	—	4.178,459	18	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
26	—	—	2	2.132,707	17	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	2.422,911	8	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
27	—	—	3	2.797,916	10	2	—	3.077,897	15	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
28	—	—	4	4.073,779	11	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	4.256,909	5	— $\frac{3}{4}$
29	—	—	5	7.229,117	4	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	7.427,261	5	7
30	—	—	6	8.350,325	1	3	—	8.689,051	19	7
31	—	—	7	10.486,447	—	1	—	11.079,722	6	10
32	—	—	8	12.749,860	19	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{5}{8}$	—	12.991,240	—	10
33	—	—	9	15.503,564	15	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	16.130,561	9	8
1 st	Geo. III.	1760	—	19.616,119	19	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	19.953,922	9	11
2	—	—	1	18.299,153	18	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	18.655,750	2	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
3	—	—	2	13.522,040	18	6 $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{29}{8}$	—	14.199,375	16	—

Totals £. 399.929,285 10 9 $\frac{23}{3}$ $\frac{23}{3}$ £. 408.898,369 6 4 $\frac{1}{2}$

SUPPLIES granted by Parliament, for
the Service of the Year 1764.

DECEMBER 5.

	£.	s.	d.
1. THAT there be granted to his majesty, for the marriage portion of her royal highness the princess Augusta, his majesty's sister ———	80000	0	0
2. That 16000 men be employed for the sea service, for 1764, including 4287 marines.			
3. That a sum not exceeding 4l. <i>per man per month</i> be allowed for maintaining them, for thirteen months, including ordnance for sea service. ———	832000	0	0
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	912000	0	0

DECEMBER 6.

1. That a number of land forces, including 2739 invalids, amounting to 17532 effective men, commission and non-commission officers included, be employed for 1764.			
2. For defraying the charge of the said number of men, for guards, garrisons, and other his majesty's land forces, in Great-Britain, Guernsey, and Jersey, for 1764 ———	617704	17	10 $\frac{7}{8}$
3. For maintaining his majesty's forces and garrisons in the plantations, including those in garrison Minorca and Gibraltar, and for provisions for the garrisons of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Gibraltar, and Quebec, for 1764 ———	372774	6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
4. For the pay of the general, and general staff officers, in Great-Britain, for 1764 ———	11322	7	3
5. Upon account, for the reduced officers of his majesty's land forces and marines, for 1764 ———	30188	18	0
6. Upon account, for the reduced officers of his majesty's land forces, reduced and disbanded in the year 1763, and such as are to be reduced and disbanded in the year 1764 ———	125455	13	0
7. For defraying the charge for allowances to the several officers and private gentlemen of the two troops of horse guards, and regiment of horse, reduced, and to the superannuated gentlemen of the four troops of horse guards, for 1764 ———	2605	15	0

8. To

£. s. d.

8. To enable his majesty to defray the charge of the subsidies due to the duke of Brunswick, pursuant to treaties, for the year 1764 ————— 43901 3 7⁵/₁₁

9. For the ordinary of the navy, including half pay to sea and marine officers, for 1764 ————— 398568 11 9

10. For carrying on the building of four houses for the officers of the hospital lately erected at Plymouth ————— 3000 0 0

11. Upon account, to be applied by the commissioners or governors of Greenwich Hospital, for the support and relief of seamen worn out and become decrepit in the service of their country, who shall not be provided for within the hospital ————— 10000 0 0

12. For the charge of the office of ordnance, for land service, for 1764 ————— 173080 8 6

13. For defraying the expence of services performed by the said office, and not provided for by parliament, in 1763 ————— 52359 8 1

1840961 9 6⁷/₈

JANUARY 19.

Towards the buildings, rebuildings, and repairs of his majesty's ships for 1764 ————— 200000 0 0

JANUARY 27.

1. That provision be made for enabling his majesty to satisfy all such bills, payable in course of the navy and victualling offices, and for transports, made out on or before the 31st of December 1762, as were not converted into annuities, after the rate of 4 l. *per cent. per ann.* in pursuance of an act made in the last session of parliament, amounting to ————— 179229 6 6

Towards enabling the trustees of the British Museum to carry on the execution of the trust reposed in them by parliament ————— 2000 0 0

181229 6 6

FEBRUARY 2.

Towards enabling the commissioners for putting in execution an act made in the second year of his majesty's reign, intituled, *An act for paving, &c. the streets of Westminster, &c.* more effectually to perform the trusts reposed in them, one sum, part thereof, not exceeding 5000 l. to be paid to the said commissioners, on or before the 5th of April,

APPENDIX to the CHRONICLE. [159

L. s. d.

April, 1764, and another sum, not exceeding 5000l. the other part thereof, to be paid to them, on or before the 5th of April, 1765

10000 0 0

FEBRUARY 6.

For paying off and discharging the exchequer bills made out by virtue of an act passed last session, intituled, *An act for raising a certain sum of money by loans or exchequer bills, for 1763, and for further appropriating, &c.* and charged upon the first aids or supplies to be granted in this session

1800000 0 0

MARCH 1.

1. To replace to the sinking fund the like sum issued thereout, for the half year's payment due the 29th of September, 1763, on the annuities after the rate of 4l. per cent. per ann. granted in respect of certain navy, victualling, and transport bills, and ordnance debentures, delivered in and cancelled, pursuant to an act made in the last session

69671 1 2

2. To replace to the sinking fund the like sum paid out of the same, to make good the deficiency on the 5th of July, 1763, of the several rates and duties upon offices and pensions, and upon houses, and upon windows and lights, which were made a fund by an act of the 31st of the reign of his late majesty, for paying annuities to the bank of England, in respect of five millions borrowed towards the supply of 1758

41223 1 6

3. To replace to the sinking fund the like sum paid out of the same, to make good the deficiency on the 10th of October, 1763, of the several additional duties upon wines imported into this kingdom, and certain duties upon all cyder and perry, which were made a fund by an act of the late session, for paying annuities, in respect of 3500000l. borrowed towards the supply of 1763.

36699 15 4½

4. To make good to his majesty the like sum, which has been issued, by his majesty's orders, in pursuance of the addresses of this house

7350 0 0

5. For defraying the extraordinary expences of his majesty's land forces, and other services, incurred between the 20th of February, 1763, and the

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£. s. d.

the 25th of December following, and not provided for by parliament — — —

823876 12 2 $\frac{3}{4}$

6. (Out of the monies or savings remaining of the grant in last session, for pay of the troops of the duke of Brunswick, and for subsidies, and of the grants in several former sessions, for defraying the charge of five battalions, serving in the late army in Germany, with a corps of artillery) towards defraying the extraordinary expences of his majesty's land forces, and other services, incurred from the 20th of February, 1763, to the 25th of December following, and not provided for by parliament — — —

102469 19 3 $\frac{6}{11}$

7. (Out of certain savings of public monies, and out of monies arisen by the sale of his majesty's stores in Germany and Portugal, which have been paid to the paymaster general of his majesty's land forces) towards defraying the extraordinary expences of his majesty's land forces, and other services, incurred from the 20th of February, 1763, to the 25th of December following, and not provided for by parliament — — —

61088 4 0

8. Upon account, towards defraying the charge of out-pensioners of Chelsea hospital, for 1764 — — —

103794 2 0

9. To make good a deficiency in the sum voted last session, upon account, towards defraying the charge of out-pensioners of Chelsea hospital, for 1763. — — —

18331 17 11

10. For the paying of pensions to the widows of such reduced officers of his majesty's land forces and marines, as died upon the establishment of half-pay in Great-Britain, and who were married to them before the 25th of December, 1716, for 1764 — — —

1696 0 0

11. Upon account, for maintaining and supporting the civil establishment of Nova Scotia, for 1764 — — —

5703 14 11

12. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil establishment of Georgia, and other incidental expences attending the same, from the 24th of June, 1763, to the 24th of June, 1764 — — —

4031 8 8

13. Upon account for defraying the charges of the civil establishment of East Florida, and other incidental expences attending the same, from

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	£.	s.	d.
from the 24th of June, 1763, to the 24th of June, 1764	5700	0	0
14. Upon account, for defraying the charges of the civil establishment of West Florida, and other incidental expences attending the same, from the 24th of June, 1763, to the 24th of June, 1764	5700	0	0
15. Upon account, for defraying the expence attending general surveys of his majesty's dominions in North America, for 1764	1818	9	0
16. To be applied towards encouraging and enabling John Blake, esq; further to carry into execution the plan concerted by him, for the better supplying the cities of London and Westminster with fish at moderate rates	2500	0	0
	1291654	6	1 $\frac{3}{44}$

MARCH 13.

1. Towards paying off and discharging the debt of the navy	650000	0	0
2. To make good the deficiency of the grants for the service of 1763	129489	0	3
	779489	0	3

MARCH 19.

For paying a bounty, for 1764, of 2 s. 6 d. *per* day to fifteen chaplains, and of 2 s. *per* day to fifteen more chaplains, who have served longest on board his majesty's ships of war, provided it appears by the books of the said ships, that they have been actually borne and mustered thereon, for the space of four years, during the late war with France and Spain; and provided likewise, that such chaplains do not enjoy the benefit of some ecclesiastical living, or preferment, from the crown, or otherwise, of the present annual value of 50 l.

1231 17 6

MARCH 22.

1. To enable the commissioners appointed by virtue of an act, made in the second year of the present reign, intituled, *An act for vesting certain lands, &c.* to make compensation to the several owners and proprietors of such lands, &c. in the counties of Kent, Suffex, and Southampton, as have been purchased for the purposes mentioned in the said act, and for damages done to the lands adjacent

545 15 0

£. s. d.

2. Upon account, for defraying the charge of the pay and cloathing of the militia, for one year, beginning the 25th of March, 1764 — —

80000 0 0

80545 15 0

APRIL 2.

To make good the interest of the several principal sums to be paid in pursuance of the said *act for vesting certain lands, &c.* to the 24th of June, 1764 — — —

103 13 9 $\frac{1}{4}$

APRIL 5.

1. Upon account, towards enabling the governors and guardians of the Foundling Hospital to maintain and educate such children as were received into the said hospital on or before the 25th of March, 1760, from the 31st of December, 1763, exclusive, to the 31st of December, 1764, inclusive; and to be issued and paid, for the use of the said hospital, without fee or reward, or any deduction whatsoever — — —

38347 10 0

2. To be employed in maintaining and supporting the British forts and settlements on the coast of Africa — — —

20000 0 0

3. To enable his majesty to make good to Samuel Touchet of London, merchant, all the expence he has incurred in fitting out several vessels employed in the late successful expedition for the reduction of the French forts and settlements in the river Senegal, and to satisfy to him all claims and demands whatsoever, on the commissioners of his majesty's navy, or on any officer, or officers, employed in the said expedition, for such of the said vessels as were lost, or taken into his majesty's service — — —

7000 0 0

65347 10 0

APRIL 7. —

1. Upon account, towards discharging such unsatisfied claims and demands, for expences incurred during the late war in Germany, as appear to be due by the reports of the commissioners appointed by his majesty for examining and stating such claims and demands — — —

329093 17 4

2. That the sum of 170906l. 2s. 8d. arising from certain savings made upon the non-effective accounts of several regiments, and reserved in the office of the paymaster general, be granted to his majesty, upon account, towards discharging such unsatisfied claims — — —

claims and demands, for expences incurred during the late war in Germany, as appear to be due by the reports of the said commissioners — —

170906 2 8

3. On account, towards assisting his majesty to grant a reasonable succour in money to the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, pursuant to treaty — —

50000 0 0

550000 0 0

Sum total of the supplies granted in this session

7712562 18 7²/₅

Ways and Means for raising the above supply granted to his majesty, agreed to on the following days, viz.

DECEMBER 8.

1. **T**HAT the duties on malt, &c. be continued to the 24th of June, 1765, 750,000l.

2. That a land tax of 4s. in the pound be raised in the usual manner, for one year, from the 25th of March, 1764, 2,037,854l. 9s. 11d.

FEB. 6.

That all persons interested in, or intitled unto, such of the bills payable in course of the navy or victualling offices, or for transports, made out on or before the 1st day of December, 1762, as have not been converted into annuities, after the rate of 4l. per centum per annum, in pursuance of an act of the last session of parliament, who shall, on or before the first day of March next, carry the same (after having had the interest, due thereupon to the 25th day of March, 1763, inclusive, computed and marked upon the said bills, at the navy or victualling office respectively) to the treasurer of his majesty's navy, to be

marked and certified, by him or his paymaster, to the governor and company of the Bank of England, shall be intitled unto, and have an annuity, transferrable at the Bank of England, for the principal and interest due on the said bills, after the rate of 4l. per centum per annum, commencing from the said 25th day of March, 1763, in lieu of all other interest, until redeemed by parliament, the said annuities to be charged upon the sinking fund, and the sums which shall be issued out of the sinking fund, for payment of the said annuities, to be, from time to time, replaced out of the next aids to be granted in parliament.

FEB. 9.

That the proposal of the bank, for advancing the sum of one million on exchequer bills; and for paying the sum of 110,000l. into the exchequer, upon such terms and conditions as are therein mentioned, be accepted, 1,110,000l.

FEB. 21.

1. That the act 9 Geo. II. chap. 37. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 2. That the act of 4 Geo. II. chap. 29. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 3. That so much of an act of 8 Geo. I. chap. 12. as relates to the

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importation of wood and timber, and of the goods commonly called lumber, therein particularly enumerated, from any of his majesty's plantations or colonies in America, free from all customs and impositions whatsoever, is near expiring, and fit to be continued.

MARCH 10.

1. That a duty of 2 l. 19 s. 9 d. sterling money, per hundred weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all foreign coffee, imported from any place (except from Great Britain) into the British colonies and plantations in America. 2. That a duty of six pence, sterling money, per pound weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all foreign indico, imported into the said colonies and plantations. 3. That a duty of 7 l. sterling money, per ton, be laid upon all wine of the growth of the Madeiras, or of any other island or place, lawfully imported from the respective place of the growth of such wine, into the said colonies and plantations. 4. That a duty of 10 s. sterling money, per ton, be laid upon all Portugal, Spanish, or any other wine (except French wine) imported from Great Britain into the said colonies and plantations. 5. That a duty of 2 s. sterling money, per pound weight, avoirdupois, be laid upon all wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of Persia, China, or East-India, imported from Great Britain into the said colonies and plantations. 6. That a duty of 2 s. and six pence, sterling money, per piece, be laid upon all callicoes, painted, dyed, printed, or stained, in Persia, China, or East-

India, imported from Great Britain, into the said colonies and plantations. 7. That a duty of 3 s. sterling money, per piece, be laid upon all foreign linen cloth, called cambrick, and upon all French lawns imported from Great Britain, into the said colonies and plantations. 8. That a duty of 7 s. sterling money, per hundred weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all coffee, shipped in any British colony or plantation in America, being the place of the growth thereof, in order to be exported or conveyed to any other place, except to Great Britain. 9. That a duty of one half-penny, sterling money, per pound weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all pimento shipped in any British colony or plantation in America, being the place of the growth thereof, in order to be exported or conveyed to any other place except to Great Britain. 10. That an act, made in the 6th Geo. II. chap. 13. be continued until the 30th of September, 1764. 11. That the said act be, with the amendments, made perpetual, from the 29th day of September, 1764. 12. That from and after the said 29th day of September, 1764, in lieu of the duty granted by the said act upon molasses and syrups, a duty of three pence sterling money, per gallon, be laid upon all molasses and syrups of the growth, product, or manufacture, of any foreign American colony or plantation imported into the British colonies and plantations in America. 13. That the produce of all the said duties, and also of the duties which shall, from and after the said 20th day of September, 1764, be raised by virtue of the said act,

act, made in the sixth year of the reign of his said late majesty king George the second, be paid into the receipt of his majesty's exchequer, and there reserved, to be from time to time disposed of by parliament, towards defraying the necessary expences of defending, protecting, and securing, the British colonies and plantations in America. 14. That, towards further defraying the said expences, it may be proper to charge certain stamp duties in the said colonies and plantations. 15. That there be not any drawback allowed of any part of the rate or duty commonly called the old subsidy upon any foreign goods (except wines) of the growth, production, or manufacture, of Europe, or the East Indies, exported from this kingdom, to the British colonies and plantations in America. 16. That there be not any drawback allowed of any part of any rate or duty upon any white callicoes, or foreign linens, exported from this kingdom, to the British colonies and plantations in America. 17. That the duties imposed in the British colonies and plantations in America, by an act made in the 25th year of the reign of king Charles the second, intituled, *An act for the encouragement of the Greenland and Eastland trades, and for the better securing the plantation trade*, be declared to be sterling money. 18. That the importation of rum and spirits, of the produce or manufacture of any foreign American colony or plantation, into the British colonies and plantations in America, be prohibited. 19. That the annuities, granted anno 1761, for a

certain term of 99 years, from the 5th day of January, 1761, transferrable at the bank of England, be, from the 5th day of January, 1764, with the consent of the several proprietors, added to, and made a joint stock with, the annuities which were granted anno 1762, for a certain term of 98 years, from the 5th day of January, 1762, transferrable at the bank of England; and that the charges and expences thereof be charged upon, and paid out of, the sinking fund, in the same and like manner as those of the said annuities granted anno 1762 are paid and payable; and that such persons as shall not, on or before the 1st day of June, 1764, signify their dissent in books to be opened at the bank of England for that purpose, shall be deemed and taken to assent thereto. 20. That the 3 per cent. annuities, granted anno 1761, in respect of the sum of twelve millions borrowed towards the supply of the year 1761, together with the charges and expences attending the same, be, with the like consent of the several proprietors thereof, charged upon, and made payable out of, the sinking fund. 21. That all the monies that have arisen, since the 5th day of January, 1764, or that shall and may hereafter arise, of the produce of the additional duty upon strong beer and ale, which was made a fund for payment of the 3 per cent. annuities, granted in respect of the sum of twelve millions borrowed by virtue of an act 1 Geo. III. towards the supply of the year 1761, and also of the annuities for a certain term of 99 years, granted in re-

spect of the same sum, be carried to, and made part of, the sinking fund. 22. That, towards raising the supply granted to his majesty, there be issued and applied the sum of two millions, out of such monies as shall or may arise, of the surplusses, excesses, or overplus monies, and other revenues, composing the fund commonly called the sinking fund, 2,000,000 l.

MARCH 13.

1. That an additional duty of 1 l. 2 s. sterling money, per hundred weight avoirdupois, be laid upon all white or clayed sugars, of the produce or manufacture of any foreign American colony or plantation imported into any British colony or plantation in America. 2. That the produce of the said additional duty be paid into the receipt of his majesty's exchequer, and there reserved to be, from time to time, disposed of by parliament, towards defraying the necessary expences of defending, protecting, and securing, the British colonies and plantations in America. 3. That upon all wines (except French wines) exported as merchandize, from this kingdom, to the British colonies and plantations in America, a drawback be allowed of all the duties paid on the importation of such wines; except 3 l. 10 s. per ton, part of the additional duty of 4 l. per ton, granted by an act made in the last session of parliament; and also except such part of the duties paid upon wines, imported by strangers or aliens, or in foreign ships, as exceeds what would have been payable upon such wines, if the same had been imported by Bri-

tish subjects, and in British ships. 4. That no allowance be made for leakage, upon the importation of any wines into this kingdom, unless such wines be imported directly from the place of their growth, or from the usual place of their first shipping, except only Madeira wines, imported from any of the British colonies or plantations in America, or from the East Indies. 5. That any person or persons be permitted to import, in ships belonging to his majesty's subjects, whale fins taken from whales, caught, by any of his majesty's subjects, in the gulf or river of St. Lawrence, or in any seas on the coasts of any of his majesty's colonies in America, without paying any custom, subsidy, or duty, for the same (other than and except the rate or duty commonly called the old subsidy) for the term of seven years, from the 25th day of December, 1763.

MARCH 15.

1. That the persons interested in, or intitled unto, all or any of the bills payable in course of the navy or victualling offices, or for transports, made out on or before the 31st of December, 1762, which, in pursuance of a resolution of this house of the 6th of February last, have been delivered to the treasurer of his majesty's navy, in order to be converted into annuities, as mentioned in the said resolution, and who, instead of such annuities, shall chuse to receive the principal and interest due on such bills to the time of the payment thereof, and shall, in books to be opened for that purpose, at the office of the said treasurer, express their consent thereunto, on or before

fore the thirty-first day of this present instant March, shall be intitled to receive such principal and interest in discharge of the said bills, out of the money granted to his majesty in this session of parliament, towards paying off and discharging the debts of the navy, upon their delivering up the notes or receipts issued for the same, in like manner as if they had not delivered the said bills to the treasurer of his majesty's navy, according to the resolution of this house of the 6th of February last; and that such of the said bills, for and in respect whereof such consent shall not be so expressed on or before the thirty-first day of this present instant March, be converted into annuities as mentioned in the said resolution, and consolidated with the annuities granted by an act of the last session of parliament, to satisfy certain navy, victualling, and transport bills, and ordnance debentures. 2. That the duties now payable upon beaver skins imported into Great Britain, from his majesty's dominions in America, do cease, determine, and be no longer paid. 3. That, in lieu of the said former duties, there be granted to his majesty a duty of one penny, to be paid upon the importation of every beaver skin into Great Britain, from his majesty's dominions in America. 4. That there be granted to his majesty a duty of 7 d. upon each beaver skin, or piece of such skin, exported from Great Britain. 5. That there be granted to his majesty a duty of 1 s. 6 d. per pound, for all beaver wool exported from Great Britain. 6. That the said duties be made applicable to the same purposes, to

which the former duties upon beaver skins were applied. 7. That no drawback be allowed upon beaver skins exported from Great Britain.

MARCH 22.

1. That there be raised by loans or exchequer bills, to be charged upon the first aids to be granted in the next session, and such exchequer bills, if not discharged, with interest thereupon, on or before the 5th of April, 1765, to be exchanged and received in payment, in such manner as exchequer bills have usually been exchanged, and received in payment, the sum of 800,000 l. 2. That the sum of 3497 l. 9 s. 9 d. remaining in the receipt of the exchequer, being the surplus of the several duties upon beer and ale, granted by an act of the first of his majesty's reign, after satisfying all charges and encumbrances thereupon, to the 5th of January, 1764, be issued and applied, towards making good the supply granted in this session. 3. That such part of the sum of 150,000 l. granted in the last session for defraying the charge of the pay and cloathing of the militia, for one year, beginning the 25th of March, 1763, as shall remain in the receipt of the exchequer, after the said charge is satisfied, be issued and applied towards raising the supply granted in this session. 4. That the act of the 5th of Geo. II. chap. 28. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 5. That the act of the 6th of Geo. II. chap. 33. is near expiring, and fit to be continued. 6. That the act of the 22d of Geo. II. chap 45. is near expiring, and fit to be continued.

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The produce of many of these resolutions cannot now be certainly known. That of those which may, is as follows :

By the two resolutions of December the 8th — 2787854 19 11

By the resolution of February the 9th — 1110000 0 0

By the 22d resolution of March the 10th — 2000000 0 0

By the first and second resolutions of March the 22d 803497 9 9

To which if we add, first, the liquidated provisions made by the committee of supply, as follows :

By the sixth and seventh resolutions of March 1st 163558 3 3²/₁₁

By the second resolution of April 7th — 170906 2 8

Secondly the net produce of the French prizes taken before the declaration of war, and vested in the crown, but graciously given up by his majesty for the service of the public — — — } 723758 0 0

Sum total of the liquidated provisions will be 7759574 15 7²/₁₁

Excess of provisions — — — 47011 17 0²³/₅₅

Besides, something will probably arise from the third resolution of March the 22d, as all the regiments of militia that were in actual service were dismissed soon after the 25th of March, 1763 ; and there will be some saving upon the 6th resolution of the committee of supply agreed to December the 6th, as several of the reduced officers have already been put upon whole pay, and more may, before the end of the year, if any new vacancies should happen. Then, as to the first resolution of the committee of supply agreed to January 27th, there is reason to think that the whole will be saved ; for as navy bills sold at 10 l. per cent. discount, at the end of March, 1764, and the lowest of our 4 l. per cent. annuities then

sold for above 93 l. per cent. every man could get at the rate of 3 if not 4 l. per cent. profit, by converting his navy bills into 4 l. per cent. annuities, from whence it may be presumed, that no part, or but a very small part, of the sum granted by this resolution was ever called for. This, indeed, increased our national debt, but it diminished the sum total of the supplies, and consequently increases this redundancy, so that the whole of what may be produced by the above mentioned duties in the British American colonies, and by the other unliquidated provisions made by the committee of ways and means, will be so much money, in hand, and to be disposed of by the next following session.

E X C H E Q U E R.

Annunities for long terms, being the remainder of the original sum contributed and unsubscribed to the South-sea company	—	1.836,275	17	10 ³ / ₄	—	136,453	12	8
Ditto for lives, with the benefit of survivorship, being the original sum contributed	—	108,100	—	—	—	7,567	—	—
Ditto for two and three lives, being the sum remaining after what is fallen in by deaths	—	75,405	14	10 ³ / ₄	—	9,143	12	—
Exchequer bills made out for interest of old bills	—	2,200	—	—	—	—	—	—

{ *Notes*, The land tax and duties on malt, being annual grants, are not charged in this account, nor the 1.000,000l. charged on the deduction of 6d. *per* pound on pensions, nor the sum of 1.800,000l. charged on the surplus *anno* 1764.

E A S T I N D I A Company.

By two acts of parliament 9 Will. III. and two other acts 6 and 9 Anne, at 3 <i>per cent. per ann.</i>	3,200,000	—	—	—	97,285	14	4
Annunities at 3 <i>per cent.</i> anno 1744, charged on the surplus of the additional duties on low wines, spirits, and strong waters	—	1,000,000	—	—	30,401	15	8

B A N K of E N G L A N D.

On their original fund at 3 l. <i>per cent.</i> from 1 Aug. 1743	—	3,200,000	—	—	100,000	—	—
For cancelling bills 3 Geo. I.	—	500,000	—	—	15,000	—	—
Purchased of the South-sea company	—	4,000,000	—	—	121,898	3	5 ¹ / ₂
Annunities at 3 <i>per cent.</i> charged on the surplus of the funds for lottery, 1714	—	1,250,000	—	—	37,500	—	—
Ditto at 3 <i>per cent.</i> charged on the duties on coals since Lady-day, 1719	—	1,750,000	—	—	52,500	—	—
Ditto, at 3 <i>per cent.</i> charged on the duties on licences for retailing spirituous liquors since Lady-day, 1746	—	986,800	—	—	29,604	—	—

Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the sinking fund by the acts 25, 28, 29,

32, and 33 George II. 21.127,821 5 1¹/₄

Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the duties on offices and pensions, &c. by the act 31 George II. 500,000 — — —

Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the additional duty on strong beer and ale, by the act 1 George III. 12.000,000 — — —

Ditto at 3 *per cent.* charged on the sinking fund by the act 25 George II. 17.701,323 16 4

1.027,588 5 8
540,996 14 0

STATE PAPERS.

Address of both houses of parliament to his majesty, on occasion of the publication of the North Briton, No. 45, presented on Monday the 5th of November, 1763, with his majesty's most gracious answer.

Most gracious sovereign,

W E your majesty's most dutiful and faithful subjects, the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons, in parliament assembled, having taken into our consideration a late false, scandalous and seditious libel, intituled, The North Briton, No. 45, think it our indispensable duty to express our surprize and indignation at finding, that neither the public nor private virtues which so eminently intitle your majesty to the highest veneration, as well as to the most grateful and loyal attachment of all your subjects, nor the gracious expressions of your tender care and affection for your people, in your majesty's speech from the throne at the end of the last session of parliament, which has been thus infamously traduced, should have been sufficient to secure your majesty from so insolent and unexampled an indignity.

Such, indeed, has been your majesty's uniform adherence to the principles of our happy constitution, and such the uninterrupted harmony and good correspondence between your majesty and your

parliament, that it is no wonder to see that the same audacious hand, which hath dared thus grossly to affront your majesty, should, at the same time, violate the other sacred regards prescribed by the laws and constitution of this country; aspersing and calumniating every branch of the legislature, and endeavouring to excite, amongst all ranks of your majesty's subjects, such a spirit of discord and disobedience, as could end in nothing but the total subversion of all lawful government.

Permit us also to express to your majesty our firm persuasion and just confidence, that this most extravagant and outrageous attempt will prove as impotent as it is wicked; that, instead of answering those purposes for which it appears to have been calculated, it will, on the contrary, serve to excite in your faithful subjects the abhorrence of such dangerous practices, to unite them more firmly in their zealous attachment to your majesty's person and government, and in a due reverence for the authority of the legislature; and lastly, that in consequence of your majesty's directions to prosecute the authors of this infamous libel, it will bring such punishment upon those who shall be found guilty of so atrocious a crime, as the laws of their country have prescribed, and as the public justice and safety shall demand.

His

His majesty's most gracious answer.

My lords and gentlemen,

"The very affectionate zeal, which you express, for the vindication of my honour, and your declared resolution to support the authority of parliament, cannot fail of being extremely grateful to me. It has been hitherto, and it always shall be my care to regulate my conduct according to the principles of the constitution. I will not therefore be wanting in carrying the laws into execution, against all who shall presume to violate any of those principles; and in this resolution I doubt not of receiving the hearty concurrence and support both of my parliament and my people."

The lords protest relating to the privilege of parliament, in the case of writing and publishing seditious libels.

Die Martis, 29 Novembris, 1763.

THE order of the day for resuming the adjourned consideration of the report of the conference with the commons on Friday last being read;

The third resolution of the commons was read, as follows:

"Resolved by the commons in parliament assembled,

That privilege of parliament does not extend to the case of writing and publishing seditious libels, nor ought to be allowed to obstruct the ordinary course of the laws, in the speedy and effectual prosecution of so heinous and dangerous an offence."

And it being moved to agree

with the commons in the said resolution;

The same was objected to. After long debate thereupon,

The question was put, Whether to agree with the commons in the said resolution?

It was resolved in the affirmative.

Dissentient,

Because we cannot hear without the utmost concern and astonishment, a doctrine advanced now, for the first time in this house, which we apprehend to be new, dangerous, and unwarrantable, viz. That the personal privilege of both houses of parliament has never held, and ought not to hold, in the case of any criminal prosecution whatsoever; by which, all the records of parliament, all history, all the authorities of the gravest and soberest judges, are entirely rescinded; and the fundamental principles of the constitution, with regard to the independence of parliament, torn up and buried under the ruins of our most established rights.

We are at a loss to conceive, with what view such a sacrifice should be proposed, unless to amplify, in effect, the jurisdiction of the inferior, by annihilating the ancient immunities of this superior court.

The very question itself, proposed to us from the commons, and now agreed to by the lords, from the letter and spirit of it, contradicts this assertion; for, whilst it only narrows privilege in criminal matters, it establishes the principle. The law of privilege, touching imprisonment of the persons of lords of parliament, as stated by the two standing orders, declares

declares generally, that no lord of parliament, sitting the parliament, or within the usual times of privilege of parliament, is to be imprisoned or restrained, without sentence or order of the house, unless it be for treason or felony, or for refusing to give security for the peace, and refusal to pay obedience to a writ of *habeas corpus*.

The first of these orders was made after long consideration, upon a dispute with the king; when the precedents of both houses had been fully inspected, commented upon, reported, and entered in the journals, and after the king's council had been heard. It was made in sober times, and by a house of peers, not only loyal, but devoted to the crown; and it was made by the unanimous consent of all, not one dissenting. These circumstances of solemnity, deliberation, and unanimity, are so singular and extraordinary, that the like are scarce to be found in any instance among the records of parliament.

When the two cases of surety for the peace, and *habeas corpus*, come to be well considered, it will be found that they both breathe the same spirit, and grow out of the same principle.

The offences that call for surety and *habeas corpus*, are both cases of present continuing violence, the proceedings in both have the same end, viz. to repress the force, and to disarm the offender. The proceeding stops in both when that end is attained; the offence is not prosecuted or punished in either; the necessity is equal in both, and, if privilege was allowed in either, so long as

the necessity lasts, a lord of parliament would enjoy a mightier prerogative than the crown itself is entitled to. Lastly, they both leave the prosecution of all misdemeanours still under privilege, and do not derogate from that great fundamental, that none shall be arrested in the course of prosecution for any crime under treason and felony.

These two orders comprise the whole law of privilege, and are both of them standing orders, and consequently the fixed laws of the house, by which we are all bound until they are duly repealed.

The resolution of the other house, now agreed to, is a direct contradiction to the rule of parliamentary privilege, laid down in the aforesaid standing orders, both in letter and spirit. Before the reasons are stated, it will be proper to premise two observations.

First, that in all cases where security of the peace may be required, the lord cannot be committed till that security is refused, and consequently the magistrate will be guilty of a breach of privilege if he commits the offender without demanding that security.

Secondly, although the security should be refused, yet, if the party is committed generally, the magistrate is guilty of a breach of privilege, because the party refusing ought only to be committed till he has found sureties; whereas, by general commitment, he is held fast, even though he should give sureties, and can only be discharged by giving bail for his appearance.

This being premised, the first objection is to the generality of this

this resolution, which, as it is penned, denies the privilege to the supposed libeller, not only where he refuses to give sureties, but likewise throughout the whole prosecution, from the beginning to the end; so that, although he should submit to be bound, he may, notwithstanding, be afterwards arrested, tried, convicted, and punished, sitting the parliament, and without leave of the house, wherein the law of privilege is fundamentally misunderstood, by which no commitment whatsoever is tolerated, but that only which is made upon the refusal of the sureties, or in the other excepted cases of treason or felony, and the *habeas corpus*.

If privilege will not hold throughout in the case of a seditious libel, it must be because that offence is such a breach of the peace, for which sureties may be demanded; and if it be so, it will readily be admitted, that the case comes within the exception, "Provided always, that sureties have been refused, and that the party is committed only till he shall give sureties."

But first, this offence is not a breach of the peace; it does not fall within any definition of a breach of the peace, given by any of the good writers upon that subject, all which breaches, from menace to actual wounding, either alone or with a multitude, are described to be acts of violence against the persons, goods, or possessions, putting the subject in fear by blows, threats, or gestures. Nor is this case of the libeller ever enumerated in any of these writers among the breaches of peace; on

the contrary, it is always described as an act tending to excite, provoke, or produce, breaches of the peace; and although a secretary of state may be pleased to add the enflaming epithets of treasonable, traiterous, or seditious, to a particular paper, yet no words are strong enough to alter the nature of things. To say then, that a libel, possibly productive of such a consequence, is the very consequence so produced, is, in other words, to declare that the cause and the effect are the same thing.

Secondly, but if a libel could possibly, by any abuse of language, or has any where been called, inadvertently, a breach of the peace, there is not the least colour to say, that the libeller can be bound to give sureties for the peace, for the following reasons:

Because none can be so bound, unless he be taken in the actual commitment of a breach of the peace; striking, or putting some one or more of his majesty's subjects in fear:

Because there is no authority, or even ambiguous hint, in any law-book, that he may be so bound:

Because no libeller, in fact, was ever so bound:

Because no crown lawyer, in the most despotic times, ever insisted he should be so bound, even in days when the press swarmed with the most invenomed and virulent libels, and when the prosecutions raged with such uncommon fury against this species of offenders; when the law of libels was ransacked every term: when loss of ears, perpetual imprisonment, banishment, and fines of ten and twenty

twenty thousand pounds, were the common judgments in the star-chamber; and when the crown had assumed an uncontrollable authority over the press.

Thirdly, this resolution does not only infringe the privilege of parliament, but points to the restraint of the personal liberty of every common subject in these realms. seeing that it does, in effect, affirm, that all men, without exception, may be bound to the peace for this offence.

By this doctrine every man's liberty, privileged, as well as unprivileged, is surrendered into the hands of a secretary of state; he is by this means impowered, in the first instance, to pronounce the paper to be a seditious libel, a matter of such difficulty, that some have pretended, it is too high to be intrusted to a special jury of the first rank and condition; he is to understand, and decide by himself, the meaning of every inuendo; he is to determine the tendency thereof, and brand it with his own epithets; he is to adjudge the party guilty, and make him author or publisher, as he sees good; and lastly, he is to give sentence by committing the party.—All these authorities are given to one single magistrate, unassisted by council, evidence, or jury, in a case where the law says, no action will lie against him because he acts in the capacity of a judge.

From what has been observed, it appears to us, that the exception of a seditious libel from privilege is neither founded on usage or written precedents, and therefore this resolution is of the first

impression; nay, it is not only a new law, narrowing the known and ancient rule, but it is likewise a law *ex post facto, pendente lite, et ex parte*, now first declared to meet with the circumstances of a particular case; and it must be further considered, that this house is thus called upon to give a sanction to the determinations of the other, who have not condescended to confer with us upon this point till they had prejudged it themselves.

This method of relaxing the rule of privilege, case by case, is pregnant with this farther inconvenience, that it renders the rule precarious and uncertain. Who can foretel where the house will stop, when they have, by one infringement of their own standing orders, made a precedent, whereon future infringements may, with equal reason, be founded: How shall the subject be able to proceed with safety in this perilous business? How can the judges decide on these or the like questions, if privilege is no longer to be found in records and journals, and standing orders. Upon any occasion privilege may be enlarged, and no court will venture for the future, without trembling, either to recognize or to deny it.

We manifestly see this effect of excluding, by a general resolution, one bailable offence from privilege to-day, that it will be a precedent for doing so by another, upon some future occasion, till, instead of privilege holding in every case not excepted, it will, at last, come to hold in none but such as are expressly saved.

When the case of the *habeas corpus*

corpus is relied upon as a precedent to enforce the declaration, the argument only shews, that the mischief aforementioned has taken place already, since one alteration, though a very just one, not at all applicable to the present question, is produced to justify another that is unwarrantable.

But it is strongly objected, that if privilege be allowed in this case, a lord of parliament might endanger the constitution by a continual attack of successive libels; and if such a person should be suffered to escape, under the shelter of privilege, with perpetual impunity, all government would be overturned; and therefore it is inexpedient to allow the privilege now, when the time of privilege, by prorogations, is continued for ever, without an interval.

This objection shall be answered in two ways. First, if inexpediency is to destroy personal privilege in this case of a seditious libel, it is at least as inexpedient that other great misdemeanours should stand under the like protection of privilege; neither is it expedient that the smaller offences should be exempt from a prosecution in the person of a lord of parliament; so that if this argument of inexpediency is to prevail, it must prevail throughout, and subvert the whole law of privilege in criminal matters; in which method of reasoning there is this fault, that the argument proves too much.

If this inconvenience be indeed grievous, the fault is not in the law of privilege, but in the change of times, and in the management of prorogations by the servants of

the crown, which are so contrived as not to leave an hour open for justice. Let the objection nevertheless be allowed in its utmost extent, and then compare the inexpediency of not immediately prosecuting on one side, with the inexpediency of stripping the parliament of all protection from privilege on the other. Unhappy as the option is, the public would rather wish to see the prosecution for crimes suspended, than the parliament totally unprivileged, although, notwithstanding this pretended inconvenience is so warmly magnified on the present occasion, we are not apprised that any such inconvenience has been felt, though the privilege has been enjoyed time immemorial.

But the second and best answer, because it removes all pretence of grievance, is this, that this house, upon complaint made, has the power (which it will exert in favour of justice) to deliver up the offender to prosecution.

It is a dishonourable and an undeserved imputation upon the lords, to suppose, even in argument, that they would nourish an impious criminal in their bosoms, against the call of offended justice, and the demand of their country.

It is true, however, and it is hoped, that this house will always see (as every magistrate ought that does not betray his trust) that their member is properly charged; but when that ground is once laid, they would be ashamed to protect the offender one moment; surely this trust (which has never yet been abused) is not too great to be reposed in the high court of parliament; while it is lodged there,
the

the public justice is in safe hands, and the privilege untouched; whereas, on the contrary, if for the sake of coming at the criminal at once, without this application to the house, personal privilege is taken away, not only the offender, but the whole parliament, at the same time, is delivered up to the crown.

It is not to be conceived, that our ancestors, when they framed the law of privilege, would have left the case of a seditious libel (as it is called) the only unprivileged misdemeanor. Whatever else they had given up to the crown, they would have guarded the case of supposed libels above all others with privilege, as being most likely to be abused by outrageous and vindictive prosecutions.

But this great privilege had a much deeper reach; it was wisely planned, and hath hitherto, through all times, been resolutely maintained.

It was not made to screen criminals, but to preserve the very being and life of parliament; for when our ancestors considered, that the law had lodged the great powers of arrest, indictment, and information, in the crown, they saw the parliament would be undone, if, during the time of privilege, the royal process should be admitted in any misdemeanor whatsoever: therefore they excepted none. Where the abuse of power would be fatal, the power ought never to be given, because redress comes too late.

A parliament under perpetual terror of imprisonment can neither be free, nor bold, nor honest; and if this privilege was once removed,

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the most important question might be irrecoverably lost, or carried by a sudden irruption of messengers, let loose against the members half an hour before the debate.

Lastly, as it has already been observed, the case of supposed libels is, of all others, the most dangerous and alarming to be left open to prosecution during the time of privilege.

If the severity of the law touching libels, as it hath sometimes been laid down, be duly weighed, it must strike both houses of parliament with terror and dismay.

The repetition of a libel, the delivery of it unread to another, is said to be a publication; nay, the bare possession of it has been deemed criminal, unless it is immediately destroyed, or carried to a magistrate.

Every lord of parliament then, who hath done this, who is falsely accused, nay, who is, though without any information, named in the secretary of state's warrant, has lost his privilege by this resolution, and lies at the mercy of that great enemy to learning and liberty, the messenger of the press.

For these and many other forcible reasons, we hold it highly unbecoming the dignity, gravity, and wisdom of the house of peers, as well as their justice, thus judicially to explain away and diminish the privilege of their persons, founded in the wisdom of ages, declared with precision in our standing orders, so repeatedly confirmed, and hitherto preserved inviolable by the spirit of our ancestors, called to it only by the other house, on a particular occasion, and to serve a particular purpose, *ex post facto*,

[N]

facto, ex parte, et pendente lite in the courts below.

Temple,	Abergavenny,
Bolton,	Fred. Litch. Cov.
Grafton,	Ashburnham,
Cornwallis,	Fortescue,
Portland,	Grantham,
Bristol,	Walpole,
Devonshire,	Ponsonby,
Scarborough,	Folkstone.
Dacre,	

His majesty's most gracious speech to both houses of parliament, on Thursday April 19, 1764.

My lords and gentlemen,

I Cannot put an end to this session of parliament without returning you my thanks for the prudent and salutary measures which you have taken to extend the commerce and secure the happiness, of my kingdoms.

The assurances which I have received of the pacific disposition of the several powers with whom we were lately at war, and of their resolution to adhere inviolably to the terms of the late treaty, promise the continuance of peace abroad; and the firm and temperate exertion of your authority, joined to the constitutional and public-spirited conduct which you have manifested on every occasion during the present session, will, I trust, establish at home due obedience to the laws, reverence to the legislature, and domestic union.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

I thank you for the supplies which you have so chearfully and

unanimously granted. The ample provision you have made for the several services recommended to you, and especially for maintaining my fleet in a respectable state, will, I am confident, preserve to this nation its proper weight and influence, and give strength and security to all my dominions.

The wise regulations which have been established to augment the public revenues, to unite the interests of the most distant possessions of my crown, and to encourage and secure their commerce with Great Britain, call for my hearty approbation.

Your regard to public credit, in discharging a part of the heavy debt contracted and unprovided for during the late war, without imposing on this kingdom the burthen of any new taxes, is particularly pleasing to me, from the tender concern which I feel for my people.

My lords and gentlemen,

It is the proper employment of this season of tranquillity, to consider of the most effectual means for perfecting those works of peace, and plans of public utility, which have been so wisely and happily begun.

I recommend these important objects to your consideration during the recess. You may depend upon my constant endeavours for the success of these good purposes; as I shall ever esteem it my truest glory, to employ that power with which the constitution hath entrusted me, in promoting your real interests, and lasting happiness.

Preliminary articles of peace, friendship, and alliance, entered into between the English and the deputies sent from the whole Seneca nation by Sir William Johnson, bart. his majesty's sole agent and superintendent of Indian affairs for the northern parts of North America, and colonel of the Six united nations, their allies and dependents, &c.

Art. I. **T**HAT the Seneca nation do immediately stop all hostilities, and solemnly engage never more to make war upon the English, or suffer any of their people to commit any acts of violence on the persons or properties of any of his Britannic majesty's subjects. — *The sachems and chiefs of the Senecas agree fully to this article.*

II. That they forthwith collect all the English prisoners, deserters, Frenchmen, and negroes, amongst them, and deliver them up to Sir William Johnson (together with the two Indians of Kanestio, who killed the traders in Nov. 1762, previous to the treaty of peace, which will take place within three months, if these articles are agreed to); and that they engage never to harbour or conceal any deserters, Frenchmen, or negroes, from this time; but should any such take refuge amongst them, they are to be brought to the commanding officer of the next garrison, and delivered up; promising likewise never to obstruct any search made after such persons, or to hinder their being apprehended in any part of their country. — *Agreed to; and they will assist in apprehending any such in their towns.*

III. That they cede to his majesty, and his successors for ever,

in full right, the lands from the fort of Niagara, extending easterly along Lake Ontario, about four miles, comprehending the Petit Marais, or landing-place, and running from thence southerly, about 14 miles, to the creek above fort Schloffer, or Little Niagara, and down the same, to the river or strait; thence down the river or strait, and across the same at the great cataract; thence northerly to the banks of Lake Ontario, at a creek or small lake, about two miles west of the fort; thence easterly along the banks of Lake Ontario, and across the river or strait to Niagara, comprehending the whole carrying place, with the lands on both sides the strait, and containing a tract of about 14 miles in length and four in breadth. And the Senecas do engage never to obstruct the passage of the carrying-place, or the free use of any part of the said track, and will likewise give free liberty of cutting timber for the use of his majesty, or that of the garrisons, in any other part of their country not comprehended therein. — *Agreed to; provided the track be always appropriated to his majesty's sole use; and that, at the definitive treaty, the lines be run in the presence of Sir William Johnson, and some of the Senecas, to prevent disputes hereafter.*

IV. That they allow a free passage through their country, from that of Cayugas to Niagara, or elsewhere, for the use of his majesty's troops, for ever; engaging never to obstruct or molest any of his majesty's troops, or other his subjects, who may make use of the same, or who may have occasion to pass through any part of their country by land or water, from henceforward. — *Agreed to; and*

moreover (if required) the Senecas will grant escorts of their people; but it is expected they will not be ill treated by any of the English who may pass through their country.

V. That they grant to his majesty, and his successors for ever, a free use of the harbours for vessels or boats within their country on Lake Ontario, or in any of the rivers, with liberty to land stores, &c. and erect sheds for their security.—*Agreed to.*

VI. That they immediately stop all intercourse between any of their people and those of the Shawanese, and Delawares, or other his majesty's enemies, whom they are to treat as common enemies, and to assist his majesty's arms in bringing them to proper punishment; solemnly engaging never to be privy to, aid, or assist any of his majesty's enemies, or those who may hereafter attempt to disturb the public tranquillity.—*Agreed to.*

VII. That should any Indian commit murder, or rob any of his majesty's subjects, he shall be immediately delivered up to be tried and punished according to the equitable laws of England: and should any white man be guilty of the like crime towards the Indians, he shall be immediately tried, and punished if guilty: and the Senecas are never for the future to procure themselves satisfaction, otherwise than as before mentioned, but to lay all matter of complaint before Sir William Johnson, or his majesty's superintendant of Indian affairs, for the time being, and strictly to maintain and abide by the covenant chain of friendship.—*Agreed to.*

VIII. For the due performance of these articles, the Senecas are to deliver up three of their chiefs as

hostages, who are to be well treated, and restored to them so soon as the same are fully performed on their parts.—*They agree to leave as hostages, Wannughfila, Serribodna, and Arajungas, three of their chiefs.*

IX. In consequence of their perfect agreement to the foregoing articles, Sir William Johnson doth, by virtue of the powers and authorities reposed in him, in the name of his Britannic majesty, promise and engage, that the said Indians shall have a full pardon for past transgressions: That they shall be left in the quiet and peaceable possession of all their rights not comprised in the foregoing articles; and that, on their duly performing the same, and subscribing the definitive treaty of peace, to be held in consequence hereof, they shall be once more admitted into the covenant chain of friendship with the English; and be indulged with a free, fair, and open trade, so long as they abide by their engagements.—*This article the Senecas expect will be strictly regarded; and also that trade will be carried on in a fair and equitable manner.*

The foregoing articles, after being duly and fully explained to the chiefs and warriors, deputies from the Senecas, they have signified their assent thereto, by affixing marks of their tribes to these presents.

Given under my hand, at Johnson-hall, the third day of April, 1764.

(Signed)

W. Johnson.

(Signed)

Tagaanadie,

Kaanijes

Chonedagaw,

Aughnawawis,

Sayenqueraghta,

Wanughsislae,

Taganoondie,

Taanjaqua.

Terms of peace, granted August 1764, by Col. Bradstreet, to the deputies from the Delawares, Shawanese, Hurons of Sandusky, and other Indians of the countries between Lake Erie and the Ohio, at Presque Isle, on his way to their country with a body of forces under his command.

Substance of the treaty between the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, ratified the 15th April, 1764.

I. **T**HAT all the prisoners in their hands should be delivered to him at Sandusky in twenty-five days.

II. That they should renounce all claim to the posts and forts we now have in their country; and that we shall be at liberty to erect as many more as we think necessary to secure our trade; and that they shall cede to us, for ever, as much land round each fort as a cannon shot can fly over, on which our people may raise provisions.

III. That if any Indian hereafter kill any Englishman, he shall be delivered up by his nation, and tried by the English laws, only to have half the jury Indians. And if any one of the nations renew the war, the rest shall join us to bring them to reason.

IV. That six of the deputies should remain with him as hostages, and the other four, with an English officer, and one of our Indians, should proceed immediately to acquaint those nations with these terms of peace, and forward the collecting of the prisoners, to be ready at the day appointed.

[In October following, Colonel Bouquet granted pretty much the same terms to another body of the Shawanese, Delawares, and other Indians at Tuscarawas, in the heart of their country, whither he had marched from Canada to bring them to reason.]

BY articles 1 and 2, a treaty of defensive alliance, and a mutual guaranty are agreed to, after reserving the liberty of concluding other treaties not contrary to the present.

3—9. In case of a foreign attack, 10,000 infantry, and 2000 cavalry, are promised, three months after the first requisition, to be continued till a cessation of hostilities. If these are not sufficient, means to be concerted to employ additional force. The troops to be paid and furnished with ammunition by the party assisting: Provisions and quarters to be furnished by the assisted. The troops to receive orders from their own general; and to have their own religion and laws.

10. No peace, &c. to be concluded without mutual consent.

11. In case of war on the part of the assisting party, it shall be exempted from furnishing its quota, or shall be at liberty to withdraw its forces, after two months notice.

12. A free commerce between the two states.

13, 14. The treaty to be in force eight years, and renewable before the expiration, according to circumstances. Ratifications to be exchanged in six weeks.

By a secret article, it is engaged to maintain Poland in its right of a free election, and to prevent all hereditary succession.

Memorial of the Porte, delivered in March 1764 to the foreign ministers at that court, in relation to the future election of a king of Poland.

AMICABLE MEMORIAL.

NOtice has been lately given to the ambassadors our friends, that it was the intention of the sublime Porte, that the ancient liberties of the court of Poland should not be encroached upon by foreign courts; that the king of Poland, who is to be set up, should be elected and established in the person of a native, as by the concurrence of the republic of Poland; and that no foreigner should be made king. Yet advices received from divers places import, that there is room to think, that disturbances are raised in Poland in order to get a person set by force on the Polish throne, who is supported by certain powers. Though we are not quite persuaded of the reality of these advices, a memorial has been delivered to each of the ministers of Russia, Germany, and Prussia, importing, that as the sublime Porte takes it to be honourable to maintain and support the ancient liberties of the Poles; and as the same sublime Porte does not cramp the election that ought to be made of a king in the person of a native of the country; the sublime Porte therefore desires, that the other powers will likewise do honour to the liberties of the Poles, and that they will not oppose the election of a king in the person of such Piast (native) as the Poles may judge eligible. In consequence, this notice is given to the ambassadors our friends.

Protest against the Polish dyet assembled for the election of a king, drawn up and signed the 7th May 1764 by twenty senators; to which protest forty-five nuncios afterwards signed an act of adherence.

1. **T**HE dyet cannot be held in presence of the foreign troops that surround the city.
2. The senators did not engage the Russians to come; they gave no thanks for their being sent, and have not any way given occasion for their arrival.
3. The Russians have committed an act of violence in Lithuania, by favouring a pernicious confederacy made for disturbing the public tranquillity.
4. It is against all justice, that in the memorial of the Russian ministers, delivered to the primate the 4th instant, the troops of the crown are accused of having meddled in the dyetines and other public acts.
5. It is by the unjust proceedings of the same foreign troops that the general dyetine of Prussia has proved abortive; and this is another motive for protesting against this dyet.
6. All good patriots, who love justice, are invited to unite for the support of liberty.

At the end of this manifesto there is an adhesion to the protests of the senators, signed by forty-five nuncios.

A discourse addressed by his Polish majesty to the prince primate and the marshal of the dyet, in the cathedral of Warsaw, when he received the diploma of his election, and took the oath usual on that occasion.

IT was not my design to speak in public at this time; but, in presenting me with the diploma of my election, that solemn token of the nation's love, you, Mr. Marechal, have exhorted the sovereign to speak to his people. These words of your discourse oblige me to speak, and to discover the feelings that passed within me, when the moment approached of taking the oath, by which I have now bound myself in your presence. Nay, I am even rejoiced that I have now an occasion of shewing you, Mr. Marechal, together with the senators and states of the republic, my real sentiments, that thus ye may judge whether my views, principles, and actions, will in any wise tend to satisfy your desires, and to accomplish your hopes.

When, by united acclamations, the respectable citizens of this vast kingdom deigned to confer upon their equal the dignity of monarch, I bowed my head with the most profound respect in receiving this precious mark of the favour, liberty, and unanimity of this great people.

After my election, the impulse of gratitude led me to the sanctuary to pay my homage to the King of kings, because it is there that he is more peculiarly pleased with the tribute of mortals. And, now that I am again called to the same

sanctuary, it appeared to me while I was approaching to it, that I was called before the throne of him who governs the universe, and presides over the course of the revolving ages. At this thought I was filled with awe; my veins also trembled when I was obliged to pronounce that irrevocable engagement, in consequence of which the honour and prosperity of the Polish nation, and the safety and happiness of the individuals that compose it, are committed to the trust of one man; and I feel so much the more the weight of this important trust, in that I have long shared with you the calamities that flow from that want of order, union, and vigour, that has clouded the lustre of this once glorious and flourishing kingdom. I acknowledge, that in that solemn moment, a discouraging view of the obligations I was going to contract, and a consciousness of my own insufficiency and weakness, made the deepest impression upon me; I was seized with a sort of terror; my voice lost its usual tone, my tongue faltered, and the words of the regal oath, though dear to my heart, which acquiesces in them perfectly, could not find an utterance; but when I turned my eyes to you, Mr. Primate, when I heard you repeat the words of the oath, I could not behold you in any other light than as the minister of the Most High, and therefore thought it my duty to submit to your guidance. Since the clamours of discord and party-hatred have been reduced to silence by your venerable presence: since a multitude of tongues, which spoke each a different language, have become all

of a sudden, as it were by a miracle, the unanimous echoes of your's, you must certainly be filled with the Holy Spirit, that Spirit of power, wisdom, and truth. Hitherto you have been my guide.—Be still my kind assistant and counsellor. Continue to cherish and keep alive the zeal and attachment of those loyal hearts, which your goodness and humanity gained over to my cause. Let your wisdom and resolution concur with my best endeavour to hold with dignity, and manage with prudence, the helm of government, at which you have been charged by the nation to place me. As the marshal of the dyet has been joined with you in this commission, both inclination and duty oblige me to address myself to him also on this occasion.

You desire me to speak, Sir, and it is with the utmost pleasure that I comply with this desire. I thereby have an opportunity of declaring that I love and honour your person, your virtues, and your talents. This declaration is not the effect of that warm gratitude that impels me to speak to you at this time; it is the effect of a long observation of those qualities, which have produced one fruit—and may that fruit always prove agreeable to our dear country! You, Sir, are called to appear before the throne, as the representative of that spirited and respectable nobility, which commands me to govern the republic according to the laws; and it is natural, that I should be desirous of employing the good offices of one whose person is so agreeable, and whose testimony is so weighty, as yours, to assure that nobility of the sincerity of my resolutions and intentions

with respect to that important object. Tell that nobility, that it is my fixed purpose to employ the remainder of my days, and all the means and opportunities that it shall please the Divine Providence to place within the extent of my power, in answering the expectations of my dear countrymen. But at the same time exhort them, conjure them, to lend their zealous succours to a sovereign, who has their happiness and prosperity deeply at heart, and who will never aim at any other object than the public good. Where is the person, that does not see, and also feel, the disorders and calamities under which the nation labours? A dismal experience points out too plainly the pernicious source from whence these calamities flow. Self-interest and envy have produced discord, and thus thrown all things into confusion. A spirit of faction has perplexed our councils, and thus rendered impotent the natural instruments of our safety and of our glory; and those treasures, that ought to have been employed in maintaining the vigour and splendor of this republic, are become the prey of that fatal luxury, whose pernicious effects increase from day to day. Let our union then heal those calamities, which all other means will be insufficient to remove! You know by experience, that a few tools of faction can destroy with more facility than the majority can build. Let emulation, that useful virtue, that seems to border upon envy, from which nevertheless it differs extremely, animate our efforts. Let us all run the noble race of patriotism, and endeavour to surpass one another, in aiming at true merit,

merit, and proposing to ourselves no other glory but that which is acquired by serving our country. But to what will amount the desires and the projects of feeble mortals, if they are not seconded by Him whose word commands nations and empires to rise or fall? Great God! whose hand has raised me to the high station I now fill, thou doest nothing in vain. Thou hast given me the crown; and thou hast given me, with it, an ardent desire to restore this kingdom to its former prosperity and grandeur. Finish, therefore, thy own work! Let my prayer arise to the throne of Thee, by whom kings reign! Inspire the hearts of this people with that zeal for the public, that fills mine!

Manifesto published by the court of Petersburg, on occasion of the death of prince Ivan.

CATHARINE the second, by the grace of God, empress and sovereign of all Russia, &c. &c. to all whom these presents may concern.

When, by the Divine will, and in compliance with the ardent and unanimous desires of our faithful subjects, we ascended the throne of Russia, we were not ignorant that Ivan, son of Anthony, prince of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle and the princess Anne of Mecklenberg, was still alive. This prince, as is well known, was immediately after his birth unlawfully declared heir to the imperial crown of Russia; but, by the decrees of Providence, he was soon after irrevocably excluded from that high dignity, and the

scepter placed in the hands of the lawful heiress, Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, our beloved aunt of glorious memory. After we had ascended the throne, and offered up to heaven our just thanksgivings, the first object that employed our thoughts in consequence of that humanity that is natural to us, was the unhappy situation of that prince, who was dethroned by the Divine Providence, and had been unfortunate ever since his birth, and we formed the resolution of alleviating his misfortunes, as far as was possible. We immediately made a visit to him, in order to judge of his understanding and talents, and, in consequence thereof, to procure him an agreeable and quiet situation, suitable to his character and the education he had received; but how great was our surprize, when, besides a defect in his utterance, that was uneasy to himself, and rendered his discourse almost unintelligible to others, we observed in him a total privation of sense and reason! Those who accompanied us during this interview saw how much our heart suffered at the view of an object so proper to excite compassion; they were also convinced that the only measure we could take to succour the unfortunate prince, was to leave him where we found him, and to procure him all the comforts and conveniences that his situation would admit of. We accordingly gave our orders for this purpose, though the state he was in prevented his perceiving the marks of our humanity, or being sensible of our attention and care; for he knew nobody, could not distinguish between good and

and evil, nor did he know the use that might be made of reading, to pass the time with less weariness and disgust; on the contrary, he sought after pleasure in objects that discovered, with sufficient evidence, the disorder of his imagination.

To prevent, therefore, ill-intentioned persons from giving him any trouble, or from making use of his name or orders to disturb the public tranquillity, we gave him a guard, and placed about his person two officers of the garrison, in whose fidelity and integrity we could confide. These officers were captain Wlassieff and lieutenant Tschekin, who, by their long military services, which had considerably impaired their health, deserved a suitable recompence, and a station in which they might pass quietly the rest of their days; they were accordingly charged with the care of the prince, and were strictly enjoined to let none approach him. Yet all these precautions were not sufficient to prevent an abandoned profligate from committing at Schlusselfburg, with unparalleled wickedness, and at the risk of his own life, an outrage, whose enormity inspires horror. A second lieutenant of the regiment of Smolensko, a native of the Ukraine, named Basil Mirowitz, grandson of the first rebel that followed Mazeppa, and a man in whom the perjury of his ancestors seems to have been infused with their blood; this profligate, having passed his days in debauchery and dissipation, and being thus deprived of all honourable means of advancing his fortune; having also lost sight of what he owed to the law of God

and of the oath of allegiance he had taken to us, and knowing prince Ivan only by name, without any knowledge either of his bodily or mental qualities, took it into his head to make use of this prince to advance his fortune at all events, without being restrained by a consideration of the bloody scene that such an attempt was adapted to occasion. In order to execute this detestable, dangerous, and desperate project, he desired, during our absence in Livonia, to be upon guard, out of his turn, in the fortress of Schlusselfburgh, where the guard is relieved every eight days; and the 15th of last month, about two o'clock in the morning, he, all of a sudden, called up the main guard, formed it into a line, and ordered the soldiers to load with ball. Berenikoff, governor of the fortress, having heard a noise, came out of his apartment, and asked Mirowitz the reason of this disturbance, but received no other answer from this rebel than a blow on the head with the butt-end of his musket. Mirowitz, having wounded and arrested the governor, led on his troop with fury, and attacked, with fire-arms, the handful of soldiers that guarded prince Ivan. But he was so warmly received by those soldiers under the command of the two officers mentioned above, that he was obliged to retire. By a particular direction of that Providence that watches over the life of man, there was that night a thick mist, which, together with the inward form and situation of the fortress, had this happy effect, that not one individual was either killed or wounded. The bad success of this first attempt could not engage this
enemy

enemy of the public peace to desist from his rebellious purpose. Driven on by rage and despair, he ordered a piece of cannon to be brought from one of the bastions, which order was immediately executed. Captain Wlasseiff, and his lieutenant Tschekin, seeing that it was impossible to resist such a superior force, and considering the unhappy consequences that must ensue from the deliverance of a person that was committed to their care, and the effusion of innocent blood that must follow from the tumults it was adapted to excite, took, after deliberating together, the only step that they thought proper to maintain the public tranquillity, which was to cut short the days of the unfortunate prince. Considering also, that if they set at liberty a prisoner, whom this desperate party endeavoured to force with such violence out of their hands, they ran the risk of being punished according to the rigour of the laws, they assassinated the prince, without being restrained by the apprehension of being put to death by a villain reduced to despair. The monster (Mirowitz), seeing the dead body of the prince, was so confounded and struck at a sight he so little expected, that he acknowledged, that very instant, his temerity and his guilt, and discovered his repentance to the troop, which about an hour before he had seduced from their duty, and rendered the accomplices of his crime.

Then it was, that the two officers, who had nipt this rebellion in the bud, joined with the governor of the fortress in securing the person of this rebel, and in bringing back the soldiers to their duty.

They also sent to our privy councillor Panin, under whose orders they acted, a relation of this event, which, though unhappy, has nevertheless, under the protection of Heaven, been the occasion of preventing still greater calamities. This senator dispatched immediately lieutenant colonel Caschkin, with sufficient instructions to maintain the public tranquillity, to prevent disorder on the spot (i. e. where the assassination was committed), and sent us, at the same time, a courier with a circumstantial account of the whole affair. In consequence of this, we ordered lieutenant general Weymarn, of the division of St. Petersburg, to take the necessary informations upon the spot; this he has done, and has sent us, accordingly, the interrogatories, depositions, and the confession of the villain himself, who has acknowledged his crime.

Sensible of the enormity of his crime, and of its consequences with regard to the peace of our country, we have referred the whole affair to the consideration of our senate, which we have ordered, jointly with the synod, to invite the three first classes, and the presidents of all the colleges, to hear the verbal relation of general Weymarn, who has taken the proper informations, to pronounce sentence in consequence thereof, and, after that sentence has been signed, to present it to us for our confirmation of the same.

The original is signed by
her imperial majesty's
own hand.

CATHARINE.

Papers relative to East India affairs.

Copy of the Phirmaun.

TO all governors, officers, and managers of our affairs, jagheerdars, fougedars, karnries, rahdars, guzerbauns, and zemindars of the present and time to come, in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixá, port of Hougly, and other ports of the aforesaid provinces, who hope for our royal favour.

Be it known unto you all, that in these days of our triumphant reign, Mr. John Surman and Kauja Sirhud, agents on the part of the English company, have preferred a petition, in our just and equitable presence, to the following purpose; that, in consequence of a decree of his most sacred majesty Shah—deceased, and former grants, the English company are exempted from customs in all parts of our dominions, except the port of Surat, and pay annually, into our royal treasury, at the port of Hougly, three thousand rupees, as a tribute, in lieu of customs; and they hope that, according to former grants, our royal phirmaun will be vouchsafed to them.

Our absolute and high command is passed, that you well knowing, that whatever goods and merchandize their agents may bring into or carry out from the ports, borders, and quarters of these provinces, either by land or water, are exempt from duties, shall leave them to buy and sell at their own free liberty, shall annually receive the established tribute of three thousand rupees, and on no other ac-

count whatever impede or interrupt them. Moreover.

If any-where any of their effects shall be made away with, you are to use all diligence in the recovery thereof, and shall punish the thieves, and deliver over the goods to the proper owner. Further, wheresoever they may set up a factory, and buy and sell goods and merchandize, you are to afford them help and support in their just concerns, and with justness and fairness cause to be repaid unto their agents, whatever just demand they may have upon any merchant, weaver, or other person, and you are to allow no one to molest their agents, nor shall you stop for customs, &c. boats hired by them, or of their own property.

Treaty executed by Meer Jaffer.

I. **W**Hatever articles were agreed upon in the time of peace with the Nabob Serajah Doula, I agree to comply with.

II. The enemies of the English are my enemies, whether they be Indians or Europeans.

III. All the effects and factories, belonging to the French in the province of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, shall remain in possession of the English; nor will I ever allow them any more to settle in the three provinces.

IV. In consideration of the losses, which the English company have sustained by the plunder and capture of Calcutta by the Nabob, and the charges occasioned by the maintenance of their officers, I will give them a crore of rupees.

V. For the effects plundered from

from the English inhabitants of Calcutta, I agree to give fifty lack of rupees.

VI. For the effects plundered from the Gentoos, Musselmen, and other subjects of Calcutta, twenty lack of rupees shall be given.

VII. For the effects plundered from the Armenian inhabitants of Calcutta, I will give the sum of seven lack of rupees. The distribution of the sums allotted the natives, English inhabitants, Gentoos, and Musselmen, shall be left to the admiral, and colonel Clive, and the rest of the council, to be disposed of by them to whom they think proper.

VIII. Within the ditch, which surrounds the borders of Calcutta, are tracts of land belonging to several zemindars; besides this, I will grant the English company six hundred yards without the ditch.

IX. All the land lying to the south of Calcutta, as far as Culpee, shall be under the zemindaree of the English company, and all the officers of those parts shall be under their jurisdiction, the revenues to be paid by them (the company) in the same manner with other zemindars.

X. Whenever I demand the English assistance, I will be at the charge of the maintenance of their troops.

XI. I will not erect any new fortifications below Hougly near the river Ganges.

XII. As soon as I am established in the government of the three provinces, the aforesaid sums shall be faithfully paid.

Dated 15 Ramazan, in the fourth year of the king's reign.

Treaty concluded between Mr. Van Sittart, and the gentlemen of the select committee, and the Nabob Meer Mahomed Cossim Cawn.

I. **T**HE Nabob Meer Mahomed Jaffier Cawn shall continue in possession of his dignities, and all affairs be transacted in his name, and a suitable income shall be allowed for his expences.

II. The neabut of the soubadaree of Bengal, Azimabad, and Orissa, &c. shall be conferred by his excellency the Nabob on Meer Mahomed Cossim Cawn. He shall be invested with the administration of all the affairs of the provinces, and after his excellency he shall succeed to the government.

III. Betwixt us and Meer Mahomed Cossim Cawn, a firm friendship and union is established. His enemies are our enemies, and his friends are our friends.

IV. The Europeans and the Seapoys of the English army shall be ready to assist the Nabob Meer Mahomed Cossim Cawn in the management of all affairs, and in all affairs dependent on him they shall exert themselves to the utmost of their abilities.

V. For all charges of the company, and of the said army, and provisions for the field, &c. the lands of Burdwan, Midnapoor, and Chittagong, shall be assigned, and sunnuds for that purpose shall be written and granted. The company is to stand to all losses, and receive all the profits of these three countries; and we will demand no more than the three assignments aforesaid.

VI. One half of the chunam produced at Sillet for three years shall

shall be purchased by the gomastahs of the company, from the people of the government, at the customary rate of that place. The tenants and inhabitants of that place shall receive no injury.

VII. The balance of the former tuncaws shall be paid according to the kistbundee agreed upon with the Royroyan. The jewels which have been pledged shall be received back again.

VIII. We will not allow the tenants of the Sircar to settle in the lands of the English company, neither shall the tenants of the company be allowed to settle in the lands of the Sircar.

IX. We will give no protection to the dependents of the Sircar, in the lands or the factories of the company; neither shall any protection be given to the dependents of the company in the lands of the Sircar, and whoever shall fly to either party for refuge shall be given up.

X. The measures for war or peace with the Shahzada, and raising supplies of money, and the concluding both these points, shall be weighed in the scale of reason, and whatever is judged expedient shall be put in execution; and shall be so contrived, by our joint counsels, that he be removed from this country, nor suffered to get any footing in it. Whether there be peace with the Shahzada or not, our agreement with Meer Mahomed Cossim Cawn, we will, by the grace of God, inviolably observe; as long as the English company's factories continue in this country. Dated the 17th day of the month of Suffur, in the year 1174 of the Hegyra.

Treaty and agreement concluded between the governor and council of Fort William, on the part of the English East India company, and the Nabob, Shuja-ul-moolk Hefsam-ul-dowla Meer Mahomed Jaffier Aly Cawn Bahadre Mohabut Jung.

On the part of the company.

WE engage to reinstate the Nabob, Shuja - ul - moolk Hefsam-ul-dowla Meer Mahomed Jaffier Aly Cawn Bahadre Mohabut Jung, in the subadarrey of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixia, by the deposal of Meer Mahomed Cossim Aly Cawn, and the effects, treasure, and jewels, &c. which shall fall into our hands, shall be delivered up to the Nabob aforesaid.

On the part of the Nabob.

1st. The treaty which I formerly concluded with the company, upon my accession to the nizamat, engaging to regard the honour and reputation of the company, the governor and council, as my own, granting perwannahs for the currency of the company's trade; the same treaty I now confirm and ratify.

2dly, I do grant and confirm to the company, for defraying the expences of their troops, the chuchlehs of Burdwan, Midnapoor, and Chittagong, which were before ceded for the same purpose.

3dly, I do ratify and confirm to the English the privileges granted them by their firmaund, and several husbullhookums, of carrying on their trade, by means of their own duffucks, free from all duties, taxes, and impositions, in all parts of

of the country, excepting the article of salt, on which a duty of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is to be levied on the rewana or houghly market price.

4thly, I give to the company half the salt-petre which is produced in the country of Purnea, which their gomastahs shall send to Calcutta; the other half shall be collected by my phoufdar, for the use of my officers; and I will suffer no other persons to make purchases of this article in that country.

5thly, In the chuchleh of Silet, for the space of five years, commencing with the Bengal year 1170, my phoufdar and the company's gomastah shall jointly prepare chunam, of which each shall defray half the expences; and half the chunam so made shall be given to the company, and the other half shall be for my use.

6thly, I will maintain twelve thousand horse, and twelve thousand foot, in the three provinces; if there should be occasion for more, the number shall be increased by the consent of the governor and council, proportionably to the emergency; besides these, the forces of the English company shall always attend me when they are wanted.

7thly, Wherever I shall fix my court, either at Morshedabad, or elsewhere, I will advise the governor and council; and whatever number of English forces I may have occasion for in the management of my affairs, I will demand them, and they shall be allowed me. And an English gentleman shall reside with me, to transact all affairs between me and the company; and a person shall also reside on my part at Calcutta, to

negotiate with the governor and council.

8thly, The late perwanahs issued by Cossim Aly Cawn, granting to all merchants the exemption of all duties for the space of two years, shall be reversed, and called in, and the duties collected as before.

9thly, I will cause the rupees coined in Calcutta to pass respect equal to the ficcas of Morshedabad, without any deduction of batta; and whoever shall demand batta shall be punished.

10thly, I will give thirty lack of rupees to defray all the expences and loss accruing to the company from the war and stoppage of their investment. And I will reimburse to all private persons the amount of such losses (proved before the governor and council) as they may sustain in their trade in the country. If I shall not be able to discharge this in ready money, I will give assignments of land for the amount.

11thly, I will confirm and renew the treaty which I formerly made with the Dutch.

12thly, If the French come into the country, I will not allow them to erect any fortifications, maintain forces, or hold lands, zemindaries, &c. but they shall pay tribute, and carry on their trade as in former times.

13thly, Some regulations shall be hereafter settled between us, for deciding all disputes which may arise between the English agents and gomastahs, in the different parts of the country, and my officers.

In testimony whereof, we the said governor and council have set our hands, and affixed the seal of the company to one part hereof:
and

and the Nabob aforementioned hath set his hand and seal to another part hereof; which was mutually done, and interchanged at Fort William the 10th day of July, 1763.

Explanation of Persian and Moorish terms made use of in the foregoing treaties.

Batta, an extraordinary allowance to the army when abroad in the field, or in any country garrison where provisions are scarce.

Chuchleh, the jurisdiction of a phousdar, who receives the rents from the zemindars.

Chunam, or Chinam, lime.

Dustuck, an order.

Creore of rupees, an hundred lack.

Firmaun, or Phirmaund, a patent or paper signed by the Mogul; a royal mandate or grant.

Gomastah, factor or agent.

Husbulhookum, a patent signed by the vizier.

Kistbundee, a contract for the acquittance of a debt by stated payments.

Lack of rupees, about twelve thousand five hundred pounds.

Nabob, a governor of a province, the king's vicegerent.

Neabut, deputyship.

Nizamut, government.

Perwannah, an order or command, sometimes a grant.

Phousdar, a renter.

Rewana, or Ruanna, statement, adjustment, or rule.

Shahzada, royally born. King's eldest son.

Siccas, pieces of purest gold.

Soubadaree, viceroyalty of one or two great provinces.

Sunnud, charter, grant, patent.

Tuncaws, assignments upon lands.

Zemindarees, freeholds.

CHARACTERS.

An account of the inhabitants of Camchatca, and of the country itself; from a work lately published by authority at Petersburg.

THOUGH the country called Camchatca was long known to the geographers of former times, yet so little were they acquainted with its situation, that they believed it to be joined to Yesso; and this opinion was looked upon in those days as a very probable conjecture; but it has been since found that between the two countries there is a large sea, interspersed with many islands. The Russians could form their maps of Camchatca only from conjecture, till it was brought under their subjection; and then they could not immediately procure any accurate or satisfactory knowledge of the country, for want of persons properly qualified to make the necessary inquiries.

Two late expeditions have greatly contributed to complete the geography of these parts; particularly the last, in which the sea officers delineated exactly all the eastern coast of Camchatca, as far as the Cape of Chukotskoi, all the western to the Penchinska gulph, and from Ochotskoy to the river Amur: they described the islands lying between Japan and Camchatca, and also those which are between Camchatca and America. At the same time the gentlemen of the

academy undertook to determine the situation of Camchatca by astronomical observations, and to remark every thing worthy of notice in the civil and natural history of the country and places adjacent.

That great peninsula, which makes the boundary of Asia to the north-east, and stretches itself from north to south about 7 deg. 30 min. is called Camchatca. The beginning of this peninsula is at the rivers Pustaia and Anapho, lying in 59 deg. 30 min. north latitude. The first runs into the Penchinska sea, and the other to the eastward. At these places the isthmus is so narrow, that the sea may in fair weather be seen on both sides from the hills in the middle. As the country runs broader towards the north, this place may be reckoned the isthmus that joins the peninsula to the main land. The government of Camchatca extends no farther than to this place; and all the country north of this boundary is called Zenosse, and is under the government of Anadir.

The southern part of this peninsula, which is called Lopatka, lies in 51 deg. 3 min. north latitude. The difference of longitude from Petersburg is by the best observations found to be at Ochotskoy 112 deg. 53 min. east, and thence to Bolscheretskoi, or the Great River, 14 deg. 6 min. east. The figure of the peninsula

of Camchatca is somewhat elliptical, being broader towards the middle, and growing narrower towards both ends.

Camchatca is plentifully furnished with rivers; however, they are so little that none of them are navigable by the smallest vessels, except the river Camchatca, which will carry small vessels 200 versts upwards from its mouth. Into this river it is reported that some Russians were brought by sea long before its subjection to Russia.

Upon the banks of the river Camchatca is found plenty of roots and berries, which, in some measure, supply the want of corn. There is also wood sufficient not only for building houses, but even for ship-building; and, near the head of this river, both summer and winter, corn would grow as well as in any other places in the same latitude, the soil being deep and rich; for, though snow falls in very great quantities, yet it thaws early enough, and the spring is not so rainy, nor have they such damps there, as in many other places. Several trials of summer-corn have been actually made in the neighbourhood of both the upper and lower Ostrog, or pallisadoed town of Camchatca; in which both barley and oats have succeeded. At the monastery of our Lord of Jakutski, they have several years past sown about a barrel of the first kind of grain, which yielded a crop not only sufficient for groats and meal for their own use, but even enough to supply their neighbours. It cannot be expected they should sow much

larger quantities, as, for want of horses, they are obliged to plough their land with men.

As to garden-stuff, the most succulent plants produce only leaves and stalks; cabbage and lettuce never come to perfection, and peas continue in blossom till late in the harvest, without yielding so much as a pod; but succulent roots, such as turnips and radishes, thrive well. The grass runs up near six feet high, especially near the rivers and lakes, and, besides, grows so fast, that it is sometimes mowed thrice in a summer; the cattle therefore are large and fat, and give plenty of milk all the year; for the grass continues full of juice, even to the beginning of winter, and this juice being condensed by the cold, prevents the grass from turning hard during that season, so that the cattle find food in the fields all the winter. The places where the grass thus grows are never so much covered with snow as the bogs and swamps, and, for this reason, it is difficult to travel over them in winter. But we shall wave at present any further account of the soil of this country, or other parts of its natural history, to proceed directly to the history of the natives, and their customs and manners.

The natives of Camchatca are as wild as the country itself. Some of them have no fixed habitations, but wander from place to place, with their herds of reindeer; others have settled habitations, and reside upon the banks of the rivers, and the shore of the Penschinska sea, living upon fish and sea animals, and such herbs

as grow upon the shore: the former dwell in huts, covered with deer-skins; the latter in places dug out of the earth; both in a very barbarous manner. - Their dispositions and tempers are rough; and they are entirely ignorant of letters or religion.

The natives are divided into three different people, namely, the Camchatcans, Koreki, and Kuriles. The Camchatcans live upon the south side of the promontory of Camchatca: the Koreki inhabit the northern parts, on the coast of the Penchinska sea, and round the eastern ocean, almost to Anadir: the Kuriles inhabit the islands in that sea, reaching as far as those of Japan.

The Camchatcans have this particular custom, that they endeavour to give every thing a name in their language, which may express the property of it; but, if they don't understand the thing quite well themselves, then they take a name from some foreign language, which perhaps has no relation to the thing itself; as, for example, they call a priest Bogbog, because probably they hear him use the word Bogbog, God; bread they call Brightatin Augsh, that is, Russian root; and thus of several other words to which their language is a stranger.

It appears likely, that the Camchatcans lived formerly in Mungalia, beyond the river Amur, and made one people with the Mungals, which is farther confirmed by the following observations, such as the Camchatcans having several words common to the Mungal Chinese language, as their terminations in ong, ing, oang, chin, cha, ching, kfi, kfung; it

would be still a greater proof, if we could shew several words and sentences the same in both languages. But, not to insist only upon the language, the Camchatcans and Mungals are both of a small stature, are swarthy, have black hair, a broad face, a sharp nose, with the eyes falling in, eyebrows small and thin, a hanging belly, slender legs and arms; they are both remarkable for cowardice, boasting, and slavishness to people who use them hard, and for their obstinacy and contempt of those who treat them with gentleness.

Although in outward appearance they resemble the other inhabitants of Siberia, yet the Camchatcans differ in this, that their faces are not so long as the other Siberians; their cheeks stand more out, their teeth are thick, their mouth large, their stature middling, and their shoulders broad, particularly those people who inhabit the sea coast.

Before the Russian conquest, they lived in perfect freedom, having no chief, being subject to no law, nor paying any taxes; the old men, or those who were remarkable for their bravery, bearing the principal authority in their villages, though none had any right to command or inflict punishment.

Their manner of living is slovenly to the last degree; they never wash their hands nor face, nor cut their nails; they eat out of the same dish with the dogs, which they never wash; they never comb their heads, but, both men and women, plait their hair in two locks, binding the ends with small ropes. When any hair

starts out, they sew it with threads, to make it lie close; by this means, they have such a quantity of lice, that they can scrape them off by handfuls, and they are nasty enough even to eat them. Those that have not natural hair sufficient wear false locks, sometimes as much as weigh ten pounds, which makes their heads look like a haycock.

They place their chief happiness in idleness, and satisfying their natural lust and appetites; which incline them to singing, dancing, and relating of love stories; and think it more eligible to die, than to lead a disagreeable life, which opinion frequently leads them to self-murder. This was so common, after the conquest, that the Russians had great difficulty to put a stop to it. They have no notion of riches, fame, or honour; therefore covetousness, ambition, and pride are unknown among them. On the other hand, they are careless, lustful, and cruel: these vices occasion frequent quarrels and wars among them, sometimes with their neighbours, not from a desire of increasing their power, but from some other causes; such as the carrying off their provisions, or rather their girls, which is frequently practised as the most summary method of procuring a wife.

Their trade is almost entirely confined to procuring the immediate necessities and conveniences of life. They sell the Korreki fables, fox and white dog skins, dried mushrooms, and the like, in exchange for cloaths made of deer-skins and other hides. Their domestic trade consists in dogs, boats, dishes, troughs, nets,

hemp, yarn, and provisions, and this kind of barter is carried on under a great shew of friendship; for, when one wants any thing that another has, he goes freely to visit him, and without any ceremony makes known his wants, although perhaps he never had any acquaintance with him before: the host is obliged to behave according to the custom of the country, and give his guest what he has occasion for; but he may afterwards return the visit, and must be received in the same manner.

They fill almost every place in heaven and earth with different spirits, and offer them sacrifices upon every occasion. Some carry little idols about them, or have them placed in their dwellings; but, with regard to God, they not only neglect to worship him, but, in case of troubles and misfortunes, they curse and blaspheme him.

It is very diverting to see them attempt to reckon above ten; for, having reckoned the fingers of both hands, they clasp them together, which signifies ten; then they begin with their toes, and count to twenty; after which they are quite confounded, and cry, *Metcha?* that is, where shall I take more? They reckon ten months in the year, some of which are longer and some shorter; for they do not divide them by the changes of the moon, but by the order of particular occurrences that happen in those regions; they commonly divide our year into two, so that winter is one year, and summer another: the summer year begins in May, and the winter in November.

They do not distinguish the days by

by any particular appellation, nor form them into weeks or months, nor yet know how many days are in the month or year. They mark their epochs by some remarkable thing or other, such as the arrival of the Russians, the great rebellion, or the first expedition to Camchatca.

They are ignorant of the causes of eclipses, but when they happen, they carry fire out of their huts, and pray the luminary eclipsed to shine as formerly. They know only three constellations; the Great Bear, the Pleiades, and the three stars in Orion; and give names only to the principal winds.

If any one kills another, he is to be killed by the relations of the person slain. They burn the hands of people who have been frequently caught in theft; but, for the first offence, the thief must restore what he hath stolen, and live alone in solitude, without expecting any assistance of others. They never have any disputes about their land, or their huts, every one having land and water more than sufficient for his wants.

They think themselves the happiest people in the world, and look upon the Russians who are settled among them with contempt. However, this notion begins to change; for the old people, who are confirmed in their customs, drop off, and the young ones, being converted to the Christian religion, adopt the customs of the Russians, and despise the barbarity and superstition of their ancestors.

In every Ostrog, or large village, by order of her imperial ma-

jesty, is appointed a chief, who is sole judge in all causes, except those of life and death: and not only these chiefs, but even the common people, have their chapels for worship. Schools are also erected in almost every village, to which the Camchatcans send their children with great pleasure: by this means it is to be hoped, that barbarity will be in a short time rooted out from amongst them.

Of the Ostrogs, or habitations of the Camchatcans.

Under the name of Ostrog, is understood every habitation consisting of one or more huts, all surrounded by an earthen wall or palisado.

The huts are built in the following manner: they dig a hole in the earth about five feet deep, the breadth and length proportioned to the number of people designed to live in it. In the middle of this hole they plant four thick wooden pillars; over these they lay barks, upon which they form the roof or ceiling, leaving in the middle a square opening, which serves them for a window and chimney; this they cover with grass and earth, so that the outward appearance is like a round hillock; but within they are an oblong square, with the fire-place in one of the long sides of the square; between the pillars, round the walls of their huts, they make benches, upon which each family lies separately, but on that side opposite to the fire, there are no benches, it being designed for their kitchen furniture, in which they dress their victuals for themselves and dogs. In these huts, where

there are no benches, there are barks laid upon the floor, and covered with mats. They adorn the walls of their huts with mats made of grass.

They enter their huts by ladders, commonly placed near the fire-hearth; so that, when they are heating their huts, the steps of the ladder become so hot, and the smoke so thick, that it is almost impossible for a stranger to go up or down without being burnt, and even stifled to death; but the natives find no difficulty in it; and though they can only fix their toes on the steps of the ladder, they mount like squirrels; nor do the women hesitate to go through this smoke with their children upon their shoulders, though there is another opening through which the women are allowed to pass; but if any man should pretend to do the same, he would be laughed at. The Camchatcans live in these huts all the winter, after which they go into others which they call balagans; these serve them not only to live in during the summer, but also for magazines. They are made in the following manner: nine pillars, about two fathoms long, or more, are fixed in the ground, and bound together with barks laid over them, which they cover with rods, and over all lay grass, fastening spars, and a round sharp roof at top, which they cover with brambles, and thatch with grass. They fasten the lower ends of the spars to the barks with ropes and thongs, and have a door on each side, one directly opposite to the other. They make use of the same kind of huts to keep their fish, &c. till winter comes on,

when they can more easily remove it; and this without any guard, only taking away the ladders. If these buildings were not so high, the wild beasts would undoubtedly plunder them; for, notwithstanding all their precautions, the bears sometimes climb up and force their way into their magazines, especially in the harvest, when the fish and berries begin to grow scarce.

The southern Camchatcans commonly build their villages in thick woods, and other places which are naturally strong, not less than twenty versts from the sea; and their summer habitations are near the mouths of the rivers; but those who live upon the Penchinska sea, and the eastern ocean, build their villages very near the shore. They look upon that river near which their village is situated as the inheritance of their tribes.

Of their household furniture, and other necessary utensils.

Before the arrival of the Russians, the Camchatcans used stones and bones instead of metals, out of which they made hatchets, spears, arrows, needles and lances. Their hatchets were made of the bones of whales and reindeer, and sometimes of agate or flint stones. They were shaped in the form of a wedge, and fastened to crooked handles. With these they hollowed out their canoes, bowls, dishes, and troughs; which, with cans of birch bark, constituted the whole of their furniture; but with so much expence of trouble and time, that a canoe would be three years in making, and a large bowl one year. For this reason,

son, a large canoe or trough was in as great esteem among them as a vessel of the most precious metal and finest workmanship is with us; and the village which was in possession of such valued themselves extremely upon it, especially if they were masters of a bowl which would serve for more than one guest. These bowls they dress their victuals and heat their broth in by throwing red-hot stones into it.

Their knives were made of a greenish mountain crystal, sharp-pointed, and shaped like a lancet, which was struck into a wooden handle. Of such crystals were made likewise their arrows, spears, and lancets, with which they continue still to let blood. Their sewing needles they made of the bones of fables, with which they not only sewed their cloaths together, but made also very curious embroidery.

In order to kindle fire they use a board of dry wood with round holes in the sides of it, and a small round stick; this they rub in a hole till it takes fire, and instead of tinder they use dry grass beat soft. These instruments are held in such esteem by the Camchatcans, that they are never without them, and they value them more than our steels and flints: but they are excessively fond of their iron instruments, such as hatchets, knives, or needles; nay, at the first arrival of the Russians a piece of broken iron was looked upon as a great present, and even now they receive it with thankfulness, finding use for the least fragment, either to point their arrows or make darts, which they do by hammering it out cold between

two stones. As some of them delight in war, the Russian merchants are forbid to sell them any warlike instruments; but they are ingenious enough to make spears and arrows out of the iron pots and kettles which they buy; and they are so dextrous, when the eye of a needle breaks, as to make a new eye, which they will repeat until nothing remains but the point.

The Camchatcans make their boats of poplar-wood; but the Kuriles, not having any wood of their own, make use of what is thrown on shore by the sea, and is supposed to come from the coasts of Japan, China, or America. The northern inhabitants of Camchatca, the settled Koreki and Chukotskoi, for want of proper timber and plank, make their boats of the skins of sea-animals. They sew the pieces together with whales beards, and caulk them with moss or nettles beat small.

These boats hold two persons, one of which sits in the prow, and the other in the stern. They push them against the stream with poles, which is attended with great trouble; when the current is strong, they can scarcely advance two feet in ten minutes; notwithstanding which they will carry these boats full loaded sometimes 20 versts, and, when the stream is not very strong, even 30 or 40 versts.

The larger boats carry 30 or 40 pood; when the goods are not very heavy, they lay them upon a float or bridge resting upon two boats joined together. They use this method in transporting their provisions down the stream, and also to and from the islands.

Of the labour appropriated to the different sexes.

In the summer time the men are employed in catching, drying, and transporting fish to their habitations; in preparing bones and sour fish to feed their dogs: the women, in cleaning the fish, and spreading it out to dry; sometimes they go a fishing with their husbands. After their fishing is over, they gather in the herbs, roots, and berries, both for food and medicine.

In the harvest the men catch the fish that appear at that time, and kill fowl, such as geese, ducks, swans, and the like; teach their dogs to draw carriages, and prepare wood for their sledges, and other uses. The women at this time are busy in pulling up nettles, of which they make their thread; watering, breaking, and peeling them, and laying the hemp of them up in their balagans.

The men in the winter hunt for fables and foxes, weave fishing nets, make sledges, fetch wood, and bring home the provisions, which they had prepared in the summer, and could not bring home in the harvest. The women are principally employed in spinning threads for nets.

In the spring, when the rivers begin to thaw, and the fish that wintered in them go towards the sea, the men are busied in catching them and the amphibious animals that at this time frequent the bays. The people upon the eastern ocean catch the sea beaver. All the women go into the fields, where they gather wild garlic, and other young tender herbs, which they use not

only in scarcity of other provision, which often happens at this season of the year, but likewise out of luxury; for so fond are they of every thing that is green, that, during the whole spring, they are seldom without having some of it in their mouths; and, though they always bring home a great bundle of greens, it seldom lasts them above a day.

Besides the above-mentioned employments, the men are obliged to build their huts and balagans, to heat their huts, dress victuals, feed their dogs, slay the animals, whose skins are used in cloathing, and provide all household and warlike instruments; the women are the only taylor and shoemakers, for they dress the skins, make the cloaths, shoes, and stockings: it is even a disgrace for the men to do any thing of that sort; so that they looked upon the Russians who came here first in a very ridiculous light, when they saw them use either the needle or awl. The women are likewise employed in dying skins, in conjuration, and curing of the sick.

Their method of preparing and dying skins, sewing and joining them, is as follows: skins which they use for cloaths, such as those of the deer, seal, dog, and beaver, they prepare in the following manner. First they wet and spread them out, scrape off all the pieces of fat or veins that remained after flaying, with stones fixed in pieces of wood; then rubbing it over with fresh or sour caviar, they roll it up and tread it with their feet till the hide begins to stink: they again scrape and clean it; and continue this till the skin is soft and clean. Such skins, as they

they want to prepare without the hair, they use at first in the same manner as above; then hang them in the smoke for a week, and afterwards soak them in warm water to make the hair fall off; at last, rubbing them with caviar, by frequent treading, and scraping them with stones, they make them clean and soft.

They dye the deer and dog skins, which they use for cloathing, with alder bark cut and rubbed very small. The seal skins they dye in a most curious manner: having first cleaned off the hair, they make a bag of the skins, and turning the hair-side outward they put it into a strong decoction of alder bark; after it has lain thus some time, they hang it upon a tree, and beat it with a stick. This operation they repeat till the colour is gone quite through the skin; and then rip it open, and, stretching it out, dry it in the air: at last they rub it till it becomes soft and fit for use. Such skins are not unlike dressed goat skins; however, Steller says, that the Lamushki have yet a better way of preparing them. These skins they call mandari, and they are worth three shillings a-piece. The hair of the seals, with which they ornament their cloaths and shoes, is dyed with the juice of the red wortleberry boiled with alder bark, alum, and lac lunæ; which makes a very bright colour. They used to sew their cloaths and shoes with needles made of bone, and instead of thread they made use of the fibres of the deer, which they split to the size or thickness required.

They make glue of the dried skins of fishes, and particularly of

the whale skin. A piece of this they wrap up in birch bark, and lay it for a little while in warm ashes, when it is fit for use; and indeed it seems as good as the best Yalck glue.

Of their dress.

Their cloaths, for the most part, are made of the skins of deer, dogs, several sea and land animals, and even of the skins of birds, those of different animals being frequently joined in the same garment. They make the upper garment after two fashions; sometimes cutting the skirts all of an equal length, and sometimes leaving them long behind in form of a train, with wide sleeves of a length to come down below the knee, and a hood or caul behind, which in bad weather they put over their heads below their caps: the opening above is only large enough to let their heads pass: they sew the skins of dogs feet round this opening, with which they cover their faces in cold stormy weather, and round their skirts and sleeves they put a border of white dog skin; upon their backs they sew the small shreds of skins of different colours. They commonly wear two coats; the under coat with the hair side inwards, the other side being dyed with alder; and the upper with the hair outwards. For the upper garment they chuse black, white, or speckled skins, the hair of which is most esteemed for the beauty of its colour.

Men and women, without distinction, use the above mentioned garments, their dress only differing in their under cloathing, and
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in the covering of their feet and legs. The women have an under garment which they commonly wear at home in the house, consisting of a breeches and waistcoat sewed together. The breeches are wide, like those of the Dutch skippers, and tie below the knee; the waistcoat is wide above, and drawn round with a string. The summer habits are made of dressed skins without hair; their winter garment is made of deer or stone-ram skins with the hair on. The undress, or household habit of the men, is a girdle of leather, with a bag before, and likewise a leather apron to cover them behind: these girdles are sewed with hair of different colours. The Camchatcans used formerly to go a hunting and fishing during the summer in this dress; but now this fashion is changed, and they wear linen shirts, which they buy from the Russians.

The covering of their feet and legs is made of skins of different sorts; in the summer time, during the rains, they wear the skins of seal with the hair outwards; but their most common covering is the skin of the legs of the reindeer, and sometimes of the legs of other beasts, the shaggiest they can find, to preserve them against the cold. But the buskins, which both the Cossacs and Camchatcans use in their finest dress, are made in the following manner: the sole is of white seal skin, the upper part of white fine leather, the hind quarters of white dog skin; what comes round the legs is of dressed leather, or dyed seal-

skin; the upper parts are embroidered. These buskins are so extraordinary, that, if a bachelor is observed to wear them, he is immediately concluded to be upon a scheme of courtship.

They wear the same sort of caps as the people of Jakutski. In summer they have a sort of hats of birch bark tied about their head. The Kuriles use in the summer time caps made of platted-grass. The womens head-dress is the perukes that we formerly mentioned; and these were so dear to them, that, when they came to be Christians, they were with difficulty prevailed upon to quit this dress for one more decent; however, at present, round the Russ settlements all is entirely changed, the women wearing shifts, ruffles, waistcoats, caps, and ribbands; which change no-body now complains of, except the very old people. The women do all their work in mittens; they formerly never washed their faces, but now they use both white and red paint; for white paint they make use of a rotten wood, and for red a sea-plant †, which they boil in seal's fat, and rubbing their cheeks with it make them very red. They dress most in the winter time, especially when they either receive or pay visits.

The common cloaths for a Camchatcan and his family will not cost him less than an hundred rubles; for the coarsest worsted stockings, which cost in Russia twenty kopecks, cannot be bought here for less than a ruble; and all other things are sold in the same pro-

† *Fucus marinus abietis forma*. *Pinus maritima*, seu *fucus teres*. Dood. Append. 326. Ray, Linn.

portion. The Kuriles are more able to buy good cloaths than the Camchatcans; for they can purchase for one sea beaver, as much as the Camchatcans can for twenty foxes; and one beaver costs the Kuriles no more trouble than five foxes do the Camchatcans; for he must be a good hunter who catches more than ten foxes in the winter; and a Kurile thinks himself unlucky if he does not catch three beavers in the season; besides which, great numbers are thrown upon the shore by storms.

Of their diet and liquors, together with their method of cooking.

The Camchatcans divide their fish into six parts; the sides and tail are hung up to dry; the back and thinner part of the belly are prepared apart, and generally dried over the fire; the head is laid to sour in pits, and then they eat it like salt fish, and esteem it much, though the stink is such that a stranger cannot bear it; the ribs and the flesh which remain upon them they hang up and dry, and afterwards pound for use; the larger bones they likewise dry, for food for their dogs: in this manner all these different people prepare the yokola, which is their principal food, or, one may say, household bread; and they eat it for the most part dry.

Their second favourite food is caviar, or the roes of fish, which they prepare three different ways. They dry the roe whole in the air, or take it out of the skin which envelopes it, and, spreading it upon a bed of grass, dry it before the fire; or, lastly, make rolls of it with the leaves of grass, which

they also dry. They never take a journey or go to hunting without dry caviar; and, if a Camchatcan has a pound of this, he can subsist without any other provision a great while; for every birch and alder tree furnishes him with bark, which, with his dried caviar, makes him an agreeable meal; but they cannot eat either separately, for the caviar sticks like glue to the teeth; and it is almost impossible to swallow the bark, chewed ever so long by itself. There is still a fourth method, which both the Camchatcans and Koreki use in preparing their caviar; the first having covered the bottom of a pit with grass, they throw the fresh caviar into it, and leave it there to grow sour: the Koreki tie theirs in bags, and leave it to sour; this is esteemed their most delicate dish.

There is a third sort of diet, called by the Camchatcans chupriki, which is prepared in this manner: in their huts, over the fire-place, they make a bridge of stakes, upon which they lay a heap of fish, which remains there till the hut becomes as warm as a bagnio. If there is no great thickness of fish, one fire serves to dress it; but sometimes they are obliged to make two, three, or more fires. Fish dressed in this manner is half roasted, half smoaked, but has a very agreeable taste, and may be reckoned the best of all the Camchatca cookery; for the whole juice and fat is prepared with a gradual heat, and kept in by the skin, from which they may, when done enough, be easily separated; and as soon as it is thus dressed, they take out the guts, and spread the body upon a mat

to dry, this they afterwards break small, and put into bags, carry it along with them for provision, eating it like the yokola.

The Camchatcans have a dish which they esteem very much, called huigul; it is fish laid to grow sour in pits; and, though the smell of it is intolerable, yet the Camchatcans esteem it a perfume. This fish sometimes rots so much in the pits, that they cannot take it out without ladles; in which case indeed they use it for feeding their dogs.

As for the flesh of land and the larger sea animals, they boil it in their troughs, with several different herbs and roots; the broth they drink out of ladles and bowls, and the meat they take out upon boards, and eat in their hands. The whale and sea horse fat they also boil with roots.

There is a principal dish at all their feasts and entertainments, called selaga, which they make by pounding all sorts of different roots and berries with the addition of caviar, and whale and seal's fat.

Before the conquest, they seldom used any thing for drink but plain water, unless when they made merry; then they drank water which had stood some time upon mushrooms. At present they drink spirits as fast as the Russians. After dinner they drink water; and when they go to bed at night, set a vessel of water by them, with the addition of snow or ice to keep it cold, and always drink it up before morning. In the winter-time, they amuse themselves frequently by throwing handfuls of snow into their mouths;

and the bridegrooms, who work with the fathers of their future brides, find it their hardest task to provide snow for the family in summer-time, for they must bring it from the highest hills, be the weather what it will, otherwise they would never be forgiven.

The method of travelling with dogs, and the furniture necessary thereto.

The dogs of Camchatca differ very little from the common house dogs; they are of a middling size, of various colours, though there seem to be more white, black, and grey, than of any other. In travelling they make use of those that are castrated, and generally yoke four to a sledge.

They drive and direct their dogs with a crooked stick about four feet long, which they sometimes adorn with different coloured thongs; this is looked upon as a great piece of finery. They drive their sledge, sitting upon their right-side, with their feet hanging down; for it would be looked upon as a disgrace for a man to sit down at the bottom of the sledge, or to make use of any person to drive him, no-body doing this but the women.

It is very difficult to travel in these sledges: for unless a man keeps the exactest balance, he is liable every moment, from the height and narrowness of them, to be overturned: in a rugged road this would be very dangerous, as the dogs never stop till they come to some house, or are intangled by something upon the road; especially in going down steep

steep hills, when they run with all their force, and are scarcely to be kept in; for which reason, in descending any great declivity, they unyoke all the dogs except one, and lead them softly down; they likewise walk up hills, for it is as much as the dogs can do to draw up the sledge empty. After a deep snow, before it has been hardened by a frost, there is no travelling with dogs, till a road be made, which is effected by a man going before upon snow-shoes, whom they call brodovshika.

The snow-shoes are made of two thin boards, separated in the middle, bound together at the ends, and with the fore part bent a little upwards. The brodovshika, having one of these shoes upon each foot, leaves the dogs and sledge, and, going on, clears the road for some way; then returning leads forward the dogs and sledge, so far as the road is made; a method which he must continue till he comes to some dwelling-house. This is very laborious, and it happens so often, that no driver ever sets out without his snow-shoes.

When a storm of driven snow surprizes them, they are obliged with all haste to seek the shelter of some wood, and stay there as long as the tempest lasts, which sometimes is a whole week. If they are a large company, they dig a place for themselves under the snow, and cover the entry with wood or brambles. Sometimes they hide themselves in caves or holes of the earth, wrapping themselves up in their furs; and, when thus covered, they move or turn themselves with the

greatest caution, lest they should throw off the snow, for under that they lie as warm as in their common huts: they only require a breathing place; but, their cloaths must not be tight or hard girt about them, for then the cold is insufferable.

Another danger attending travellers is, that in the severest frost several rivers are not quite frozen over; and, as the roads for the most part lie close upon the rivers, the banks being very steep, scarce a year passes without many being drowned. A disagreeable circumstance also to those who travel in these parts, is their sometimes being obliged to pass through copses, where they run the risk of having their eyes scratched out, or their limbs broken; for the dogs always run most violently in the worst roads, and, to free themselves, very often overturn their driver.

The best travelling is in the month of March or April, when the snow is turned hard, or frozen a little at top; however, there is still this inconvenience attending it, that sometimes travellers are obliged to lodge two or three nights in desert places; and it is difficult to prevail upon the Camchatcans to make a fire, either for warming themselves or dressing victuals, as they and their dogs eat dried fish, and find themselves so warm wrapped in their furs, that they want none; nay, all the people of this climate bear cold so well, that they sleep in the open air, as sound as others in a warm bed, and awake next morning perfectly refreshed and alert. This seems to be so natural to all here, that some of them

them have been seen to lie down with their backs uncovered against a fire, and, notwithstanding the fire has been burnt out long before morning, they continued to sleep on very comfortably, and without any inconvenience.

Of the Camchatcan method of making war.

Though, before the Russian conquest, the Camchatcans did not seem to have had any ambition of increasing their power, or enlarging their territories, yet they had such frequent quarrels among themselves, that seldom a year passed, without one village or other being entirely ruined. The design of their wars was to make prisoners, in order to employ them, if males, in their hardest labour; or, if females, to make wives or concubines of them; and sometimes the neighbouring villages went to war for quarrels that happened among the children, or for neglecting to invite each other to their entertainments.

Their wars are carried on more by stratagem than bravery; for they are such cowards, that they will not openly attack any one, unless forced by necessity: this is the more extraordinary, as no people seem to despise life more than they do, self murder being here very frequent. Their manner of attacking is this: in the night-time they steal into the enemies village, and surprize them, which may easily be done, as they keep no watch; thus a small party may destroy a large village, as they have nothing more to do than to secure the mouth of

a hut, and suffer no-body to come out, which only one can do at a time; therefore whoever first attempts to escape is knocked down, or obliged to submit to be bound.

The male prisoners which they take, especially if they are men of any consequence, are treated with all manner of barbarity, such as burning, hewing them to pieces, tearing their bowels out when alive, and hanging them by the feet. This has been the fate of several Russian Cossacs, during the disturbances of Camchatca; and these barbarities are exercised with great shew of triumph and rejoicing.

The private differences among themselves were very useful to the Cossacs in their conquest of the nation; for, when the natives saw the latter attacking one village, they were so far from assisting their countrymen, that they rejoiced at their destruction, not considering that the same was to be their fate next.

In their wars with the Cossacs, they destroyed more by stratagem than by arms; for when the Cossacs came to any village to demand its tribute, they were received with all marks of friendship, and not only the tribute was paid, but likewise great presents were made them. Thus, the natives having lulled them into a state of security, they either cut their throats in the night time, or set fire to their huts, and burnt them, with all the Cossacs which were within. By such stratagems seventy people were destroyed in two places, which, considering the small number of Cossacs that were there,

was a very considerable loss; nay, it has sometimes happened, that, when they had no opportunity of immediately destroying the Cossacs, they have for two years quietly paid the tribute, waiting till they could find an opportunity of doing it. But now the Cossacs are more upon their guard, and are particularly afraid of extraordinary caresses, and always expect some bad intention, when the women in the night time retire out of their huts. When the Camchatcans pretend to have dreamed of dead people, or go to visit distant villages, there is reason to dread a general insurrection.

When this happens, they kill all the Cossacs which fall in their way, and even the Camchatcans who will not join in the rebellion. As soon as they hear that troops are coming against them, instead of going to oppose their enemies, they retire to some high place, which they fortify as strongly as they can, and, building huts there, wait till they are attacked, when they bravely defend themselves with their bows and arrows, and every other method they can think of; but, if they observe that the enemy is likely to make themselves masters of the fortress, they first cut the throats of their wives and children, and afterwards either throw themselves down the precipice, or with their arms rush in upon their enemies, that they may not die unrevenge'd; this they call 'making a bed for themselves.' In the year 1740, the rebels threw themselves from the hill of Ut-

kolop, upon which they were fortified, into the sea, after murdering all the women and children, except a girl, whom they missed in their hurry. Notwithstanding this resoluteness, from the time that Camchatca was subdued, there have been but two rebellions which could be properly called so.

Their arms are bows and arrows, spears, and a coat of mail; their quivers are made of the wood of the larch-tree, glued round with birch-bark; their bowstrings of the blood-vessels of the whale; and their arrows are commonly about four feet long, pointed with flint stones, or bone; and, though they are but indifferent, yet they are very dangerous, being all poisoned; so that a person wounded by them generally dies in twenty-four hours, unless the poison be sucked out, which is the only remedy known. Their spears are likewise pointed with flint or bone. Their coats of mail are made of mats, or of the skins of seals and sea-horses, which they cut out into thongs, and plait together. They put them on upon the left side, and tie them with thongs upon the right; behind is fixed a high board to defend their head, and another before to guard the breast.

It is remarkable, that when they march, two never go abreast, but follow one another in the same path, which by use becomes very deep and narrow; so that it is almost impossible for one that is not used to it to walk therein, for those people always set one foot straight before the other in walking.

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The opinions of the Camchatcans concerning God, the formation of the world, and other articles of religion.

The Camchatcans, like other barbarous nations, have no notions of a Deity, but what are absurd, ridiculous, and shocking to a humanised mind. They call their God Kutchu, but they pay him no religious worship, and the only use they make of his name is to divert themselves with it; they relate such scandalous stories of him as one would be ashamed to repeat. Among other things, they reproach him with having made so many steep hills, so many small and rapid rivers, so much rain, and so many storms; and in all the troubles that happen to them, upbraid and blaspheme him. They always however celebrate three days in the month of November, hence called the month of Purification, after their summer or harvest labour is over; they look upon it as a sin to do any work, or make any visits, before this holiday, the breach of which they never suffer to pass without expiation. From hence we may see, that the ancestors of this people were accustomed to offer up the first fruits of their summer labours to God, and at the same time make merry with one another. Their ceremonies in the celebration of their holidays are extremely silly, and consist of many ridiculous antics.

They place a pillar upon a large wide plain, which they bind round with rags. Whenever they pass this pillar, they throw a

piece of fish or some other victuals to it; and near it they never gather any berries, or kill any beasts or birds. This offering they think preserves their lives, which otherwise would be shortened; however, they offer nothing which can be of use to themselves, but only the fins and tails of fish, or such things as they would be obliged to throw away. In this all the people of Asia agree, offering only such things as are useless to themselves. Besides these pillars, several other places are reckoned sacred, such as burning and smoking mountains, hot springs, and some particular woods, which they imagine are inhabited by devils. The world they believe is eternal, and the soul immortal, and that it shall be again joined to the body, and live eternally, subject to fatigues and troubles as in their present life, with this difference only, that they shall have greater plenty of all the necessities of life: even the very smallest animals, they imagine, will rise again, and dwell under the earth. They think the earth is flat, and that under it there is a firmament like our's, and under that firmament another earth like our's, in which when we have summer they have winter, and when we have winter they have summer. With regard to future rewards and punishments, they believe, that in the other world the rich will be poor, and the poor will be rich.

Their notions of vice and virtue are equally extravagant. They believe every thing lawful that procures them the satisfaction of their

their wishes and passions, and think that only to be a sin, from which they apprehend danger or ruin; so that they neither reckon murder, self-murder, adultery, oppression, nor the like, any wickedness: on the contrary, they look upon it to be a mortal sin to save any one that is drowning, because, according to their notions, whosoever saves him will be soon drowned himself. They reckon it likewise a sin to bathe in, or to drink hot water, or to go up to the burning mountains. They have, besides these, innumerable absurd customs, such as scraping the snow from their feet with a knife, or whetting their hatchets upon the road. This may, however, be said, that they are not the only people who have ridiculous superstitions.

Besides the above mentioned gods, they pay a religious regard to several animals, from which they apprehend danger. They offer fire at the holes of the fables and foxes; when fishing, they intreat the whales or sea-horses not to overturn their boats; and, in hunting, beseech the bears and wolves not to hurt them.

Of their shamans, or conjurors.

The Camchatcans have none who are professed shamans, or conjurors, as the neighbouring nations have; but every old woman is looked upon as a witch and an interpreter of dreams. In their conjurations, they whisper upon the fins of fishes, and some other things; by which means they think they cure diseases, divert misfortunes, and foretel futurity.

They are very great observers of dreams, which they relate to one

another as soon as they awake in the morning, judging from thence of their future good or bad fortune; and some of these dreams have their interpretation fixed and settled. Besides this conjuration, they pretend to chiromancy, and to foretell a man's good or bad fortune by the lines of his hand; but the rules which they follow are kept a great secret.

Of their friendship and hospitality.

When any man seeks the friendship of another, he invites him to his hut, and for his entertainment dresses as much of his best victuals as might serve ten people. As soon as the stranger comes into the hut, which is made very hot for his reception, both he and the host strip themselves naked; then great plenty of victuals is set before the guest; and while he is eating, the host throws water upon red-hot stones, until he makes the hut insupportably hot. The stranger endeavours all he can to bear this excessive heat, and to eat up all the victuals, whilst the host is still endeavouring to oblige him to complain of the heat, and to beg to be excused from eating all up. It is reckoned a dishonour to the host, and a mark of niggardliness, if he should not be able to accomplish this. He himself eats nothing during the whole time, and is allowed to go out of the hut; but the stranger is not suffered to stir, until he acknowledges himself overcome. At these feasts they over-eat themselves to such a degree, that for three days they cannot bear the sight of victuals, and are scarce able to move.

When the stranger is gorged, and can no longer endure the heat,

he purchases his dismissal with presents of dogs, cloaths, or whatever is agreeable to his host. This, however, is reckoned no injury, but a proof of friendship; for he expects, in turn, to use his friend in the same manner.

In their banquets they treat their friends much the same way, save only that they do not torment them with heat, nor expect any presents. When they entertain with the fat of seals or whales, they cut it out into slices; and the host, kneeling before his company, with one of these slices in one hand, and a knife in the other, thrusts the fat into their mouths, crying, in a surly tone 'Ta na,' and with his knife cuts off all that hangs out of their mouths, after they are crammed as full as they can hold. Whoever wants any thing from another, may generally obtain it upon these occasions; for it is reckoned dishonourable for the guest to refuse his generous host any thing.

Of their courtships, marriages, &c.

When a Camchatcan resolves to marry, he looks about for a bride in some of the neighbouring villages, seldom in his own; and when he finds one to his mind, he discovers his inclinations to the parents, desiring that he may have the liberty of serving them for some time: this permission he easily obtains, and, during his service, he shews an uncommon zeal to satisfy them in whatever he does. The time of his service expired, he desires liberty to seize his bride; and, if he has happened to please the parents, his bride, and her relations, his request is presently granted; but if they disapprove of it, they

dismiss him with some small reward for his services. It sometimes happens that these bridegrooms, without discovering any thing of their intention, engage themselves in service in some distant village; and though every one suspects their design, yet no notice is taken of it, till they declare it.

When a bridegroom obtains the liberty of seizing his bride, he seeks every opportunity of finding her alone, or in the company of a few people; for during this time all the women in the village are obliged to protect her; besides, she has two or three different coats, and is so swathed round with fishnets and straps, that she has scarce more motion than a statue. If the bridegroom happens to find her alone, or with few in company, he throws himself upon her, and begins to tear off her cloaths, nets, and straps; for to strip the bride naked, constitutes the ceremony of marriage. This is not always an easy task; for though she herself makes little resistance (and indeed she can make but little) yet, if there happen to be many women near, they all fall upon the bridegroom without any mercy, beating and dragging him by the hair, scratching his face, and using every other method they can think of to prevent him from accomplishing his design. If the bridegroom is so happy as to obtain his wish, he immediately runs from her, and the bride, as a proof of her being conquered, calls him back with a soft and tender voice, and thus the marriage is concluded. This victory is seldom obtained at once, but sometimes the contest lasts a whole year; and, after every attempt, the bridegroom is obliged to take

some time to recover strength, and to cure the wounds, he has received. There is an instance of one, who, after having persevered for seven years, instead of obtaining a bride, was rendered quite a cripple, the women having used him very barbarously.

As soon as the ceremony is over, he is at liberty next night to go to her bed, and, the day following, carries her off to his own village. After some time, the bride and bridegroom return to the bride's relations, where the marriage-feast is celebrated in the following manner; of which the author was an eye-witness in 1739.

The bridegroom, his friends, and wife, visited the father-in-law in three boats. All the women were in the boats, and the men, being naked, pushed them along with poles. About one hundred paces from the village to which they were going, they landed, began to sing, and used conjurations with tow fastened upon a rod, muttering something over a dried fish's head, which they wrapped in the tow, and gave to an old woman to hold. The conjuration being over, they put upon the bride a coat of sheep's skin, and tied four images about her: thus loaded, she had some difficulty to move. They went again into their boats, and came up to the village, where they landed a second time; at this landing place a boy of the village met them, and taking the bride by the hand, led her along, all the women following.

When the bride came to the hut, they tied a strap round her, by which she was let down the stairs, the old woman who carried the fish's head going before her. This

head she laid down at the foot of the stairs, where it was trodden upon by the bride and bridegroom, and all the people present, and then thrown into the fire.

All the strangers took their places, having first stripped the bride of superfluous ornaments. The bridegroom heated the hut, and dressed the victuals which they had brought with them, and entertained the inhabitants of the village. The next day the master of the hut entertained the strangers with great abundance, who on the third day departed; the bride and bridegroom only remained to work some time with their father. The superfluous parts of dress which were taken from the bride, were distributed among the relations, who were obliged to return her presents of far greater value.

These ceremonies only relate to a first marriage; for in the marriage of widows, the man and woman's agreement is sufficient; but he must not take her to himself, before her sins are taken away? This can only be done by some stranger's first lying with her once; but, as this taking off of sin was looked upon by the Camchatcans as very dishonourable for the man, it was formerly difficult to find one to undertake it, so that the poor widows were at a great loss before our Cosacs came among them; since which they have been in no want of strangers to take away their sins. Marriage is forbidden only between father and daughter, mother and son; a son-in-law may marry his mother-in-law, and a father-in-law his daughter-in-law; and first cousins marry frequently. Their divorce is very easy, consisting only in a man's separating beds from his wife.

wife. In such cases the man immediately marries another wife, and the woman accepts of another husband, without any further ceremony.

A Camchatcan hath two or three wives, with whom he sleeps by turns. Sometimes he keeps them all in one hut, and sometimes in different huts. With every maid that he marries, he is obliged to go through the above-mentioned ceremonies. Though these people are fond of women, yet they are not so jealous as the Koreki. In their marriages they do not seem to regard the marks of virginity. Nor are the women more jealous, for two or three wives live with one husband in all harmony, even though he should also keep several concubines. When the women go out, they cover their faces with a sort of veil; and, if they meet any man upon the road, and cannot go out of the way, they turn their backs to him, and stand still until he is passed. In their huts they sit behind a mat, or a curtain made of nettles; but if they have no curtain, and a stranger comes into the hut, they turn their face to the wall, and continue their work; customs very extraordinary among a people so barbarous in every other respect.

Of the birth of their children.

In general these people are not fruitful; for it does not appear that any one man has had ten children by the same woman. Their women, as they say, have commonly very easy births: the author was present at the delivery of one of these women, who went out of the hut about her ordinary business, and in a quarter of an hour afterwards, was carrying her child in

her arms, without any change in her countenance. They have no professed midwives, and for the most part the mother or nearest relation performs the office.

The women who desire to have children, for this purpose eat spiders. To prevent conception they use several herbs, and different conjurations. Some of them are such unnatural wretches, as to destroy their children when they are born, or throw them alive to the dogs. When a woman bears twins, one of them at least must be destroyed, and so must a child born in very stormy weather; though the last can be averted by some conjurations. After the birth, the women, to recover their strength, make use of fish broth, made with an herb which they call hale; and in a few days return to their ordinary diet.

Of their diseases and remedies.

The principal diseases in Camchatca are the scurvy, boils, palsy, cancer, jaundice, and the venereal distemper. These diseases they think are inflicted upon them by the spirits that inhabit some particular groves, if ignorantly they happen to cut any of them down. Their principal medicines consist in charms and conjurations, but at the same time they do not neglect the use of herbs and roots. For the scurvy they use a certain herb which they rub upon their gums, as also the leaves of the cranberry and blackberry. The Cossacs cure themselves with decoctions of the tops of cedar, and by eating wild garlick. The good effects of this medicine were felt by all the people that were in the Camchatca expedition.

Boils are a most dangerous disease

ease in Camchatca, causing the death of numbers. The palsy, cancer, and French disease, are supposed to be incurable; the last, they say, was not heard of before the arrival of the Russians. There is likewise another distemper, which they call *sulhutch*, which is a sort of scab that surrounds the whole body and the ribs like a girdle. When this does not come to suppurate and fall off, it is mortal; and, they say, every one must have this once in his life-time, as we have the small-pox.

When they are bit by a dog, or wolf, they lay the bruised leaves of the *ulmaria* upon the wound, drinking at the same time a decoction of them: this decoction they also administer in the belly-ach and scurvy. The leaves and stalks bruised they use in burns. The decoction of this herb mixed with fish they use also in the tooth-ach; they hold it warm in their mouths, and lay a piece of the root upon the affected tooth. They use a species of gentian in the scurvy, and almost against every disorder.

In the jaundice, they have a medicine, which they look upon as infallible. They take the roots of the *iris sylvestris*, and, after cleaning them, beat them in warm water, and use the juice, which they squeeze out, as a clyster, continuing it for two days, two or three times a day; this produces a purging, and generally gives great relief. After some time, if the cure is not completed, they repeat it again. They neither use lancets nor cupping-glasses, but with a pair of wooden pincers, draw up the skin, and pierce it with an instrument of crystal made on purpose, letting out as much blood as they want.

In pains of the back, they rub the part affected before the fire, with a root of the *cicuta*, being careful not to touch the loins, which they say would produce spasms. In pains of the joints, they place upon the part a little pyramid, made of a fungus, which grows upon the birch trees, and set the top of it on fire, letting it burn until it comes to the skin, which then cracks, and leaves a wound behind, that yields a great quantity of matter. The wound they cure with the ashes of the fungus, but some give themselves no trouble at all about it. The root of the *anemonides*, or *ranunculus*, they use to hurt or poison their enemies; and they likewise poison their arrows with it.

Of their burials.

Instead of burning or laying the dead bodies in some hole, the Camchatcans bind a strap round the neck of the corpse, draw it out, and leave it near the hut, to be devoured by their dogs: for which they give the following reason, that those who are eaten by dogs, will drive with fine dogs in the other world; and say, that they leave them near the hut, that the evil spirits, whom they imagine to be the occasion of their death, seeing the dead body, may be satisfied with the mischief they have done. However, they frequently remove to some other place, when any one has died in the hut, leaving the corpse behind them in it.

They throw away all the cloaths of the deceased, not because they imagine they shall have occasion for them in the other world, but because they believe that whoever

wears the cloaths of one that is dead, will certainly come to an untimely end. This superstition prevails particularly among the Kuriles of the Lopatka, who would not touch any thing which they thought had belonged to a dead person, although they should have the greatest inclination for it.

After the burial of the dead they use the following purification; going to the wood, they cut some rods, of which they make a ring; and, creeping through it twice, they carry it to the wood, and throw it towards the west. Those who dragged out the body are obliged to catch two birds, of one sort or other; one of which they burn, and eat the other with the whole family. The purification is performed on the same day; for, before this, they dare not enter any other hut, nor will any body else enter theirs. In commemoration of the dead, the whole family dine upon a fish, the fins of which they burn in the fire.

Such was in general the state of these people, when the Russians first came among them; but now, by the care of the empress Elizabeth, missionaries are appointed to civilize them, and teach them the Christian faith. In 1741, a clergyman was sent by the synod with assistants and every thing necessary for this purpose, and for building a church; which has been attended with such success, that many of them are baptized, and all very readily send their children to the schools opened in many places for their instruction; so that, in a few years, we may hope to see the Christian faith planted in all these northern countries.

An account of the inhabitants of St. Kilda, and of the island itself; extracted from the history of that island, lately published by the Rev. Mr. Kenneth Macaulay.

THE island of St. Kilda may be ranked among the greatest curiosities of the British empire. The situation of the place, the genius of its inhabitants, their manners and customs, the constitution of their little commonwealth, that amazing dexterity with which they manage the most important branches of their business, that unexampled courage, with which they encounter dangers insurmountable to any other race of men, and that, perhaps, happy ignorance, which renders them absolute strangers to those extravagant desires and endless pursuits, which keep the great and active world in a constant agitation: all these, and some other extraordinary circumstances, taken together at one view, seem highly to merit the attention of the inquisitive. And yet all the territories, belonging to the commonwealth of St. Kilda, are no more than three small islands and five naked rocks. The principal island, together with the rest, lies in the ocean, of old called the Deucalionian: its latitude I take to be about 58 degrees and 30 minutes. The length of the whole island is at least three English miles from east to west; and its breadth from south to north, not less than two.

The ground of St. Kilda, like much the greatest part of that over all the Highlands, is much better calculated for pasture than tillage.——Restrained by idleness, a fault

a fault or vice much more pardonable here than in any other part of Great Britain, or discouraged by the form of government under which they live, the people of the island study to rear up sheep, and to kill wild-fowl, much more than to engage deeply in the more toilsome business of husbandry.

All the ground hitherto cultivated in this island lies round the village. The soil is thin, full of gravel, and of consequence very sharp. This, though naturally poor, is, however, rendered extremely fertile, by the singular industry of very judicious husbandmen; these prepare and manure every inch of their ground, so as to convert it into a kind of garden. All the instruments of agriculture they use, or indeed require, according to their system, are a spade, a mall, and a rake or harrow. After turning up the ground with a spade, they rake or harrow it very carefully, removing every small stone, every noxious root or growing weed that falls in their way, and pound down every stiff clod into dust.

It is certain that a small number of acres well prepared in St. Kilda, in this manner, will yield more profit to the husbandman than a much greater number when roughly handled in a hurry, as is the case in the other western isles. The people of St. Kilda sow and reap very early, I mean earlier than any of their neighbours on the western coast of Scotland. The soil, I have already remarked, is naturally sharp, and not spongy. The heat of the sun, reflected from the hills and rocks, into a low valley facing

the south-east, must in the summer time be quite intense; and however rainy the climate is, the corn must, for these reasons, grow very fast, and ripen early. I saw the barley of this island about the beginning of June, and observed that it was higher in the stalk than any I had ever seen elsewhere at that season.

The harvest is commonly over at this place before the beginning of September; and should it fall out otherwise, the whole crop would be almost destroyed by the equinoctial storms.—All the islanders on the western coast have great reason to dread the fury of autumnal tempests; these, together with the excessive quantities of rain they have, generally, throughout seven or eight months of the year, are undoubtedly the most disadvantageous and unhappy circumstances of their lives. The St. Kildians have more than an equal portion of this sore evil.

Barley and oats are the only sorts of grain known at St. Kilda, nor does it seem calculated for any other. Fifty bolls of the former, old Highland measure, are every year brought from there to Harris; and all the western islands hardly produce any thing so good of the kind. Potatoes have been introduced among that people only of late, and hitherto they have raised but small quantities of them.

The only appearance of a garden in this whole land, so the natives call their principal island in their own language, is no more than a very inconsiderable piece of ground, which is inclosed, and planted with some cabbages.

On the east side of the island, at the distance of a quarter of a mile from the bay, lies the village, where the whole body of this little people (the number of adult males amounting to no more than twenty-two) live together like the inhabitants of a town or city. Their houses are built in two rows, regular and facing one another, with a tolerable causeway in the middle, which they call the street.

These habitations are made and contrived in a very uncommon manner. Every one of them is flat in the roof, or nearly so, much like the houses of some oriental nations——That from any one of these the St. Kildians have borrowed their manner of building, no man of sense will entertain a suspicion. They have been taught this lesson by their own reason, improved by experience.

The place in which their lot has fallen, is peculiarly subject to violent squalls and furious hurricanes: were their houses raised higher than at present, they believe the first winter storm would bring them down about their ears.——For this reason the precaution they take in giving them roofs much flatter than ordinary, seems to be not altogether unnecessary.

The walls of these habitations are made of a rough gritty kind of stones, huddled up together in haste, without either lime or mortar, from eight to nine feet high.

In the heart of the walls are the beds, which are overlaid with flags, and large enough to contain three persons. In the side of every bed is an opening, by way of door, which is much too

narrow and low to answer that purpose.

All their dwelling-houses are divided into two apartments by partition walls. In the division next the door, which is much the largest, they have their cattle stalled during the whole winter season; the other serves for kitchen, hall, and bed-room.

It will be readily expected that a race of men and women, bred in St. Kilda, must be a very slovenly generation, and every way inelegant. I confess it is impossible to defend them from this imputation. Their method of preparing a sort of manure, to them indeed of vast use, proves that they are very indelicate.

After having burnt a considerable quantity of dried turf, they spread the ashes with the nicest care over the floor of that apartment in which they eat and sleep. These ashes, so exactly laid out, they cover with a rich friable sort of earth: over this bed of earth they scatter a proportionable heap of that dust into which peats are apt to crumble away: this done, they water, tread, and beat the whole compost into a hard floor, on which they immediately make new fires very large, and never extinguished till they have a sufficient stock of new ashes on hand. The same operations are repeated with a never-failing punctuality till they are just ready to sow their barley; by that time the walls of their houses are sunk down, or, to speak more properly, the floors risen about four or five feet.

To have room enough for accumulating heaps of this compost one above another, the ancient
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St. Kildians had ingenuity enough to contrive their beds within the linings of their walls, and it was for the same reason they took care to raise these walls to an height far from being common in the other western islands.

The manure produced in this way must undoubtedly be good, though probably rather sharp than of long duration, as it is scattered in small quantities upon the surface of the ground; so that the fiery and saline particles of it must soon evaporate. Be that as it will, those who practise this art are abundantly lavish in its praises. They call it a commodity inestimably precious; and one may venture to affirm, that a genuine St. Kildian would scruple to barter it away for all the diamonds in Brasil and Golconda.

It is certain that cleanliness must contribute greatly to health, and of course longevity; but in spite of that instance of indelicacy now given, and many more which might have been added, I have not been able to find, that the people of this island are more short lived than other men.—— Their total want of those articles of luxury, which have so natural a tendency to destroy the constitution of the human body, and their moderate exercises, will, together with some other circumstances, keep the balance of life equal enough between them and those who are absolute strangers to slovenliness.

Besides the dwelling-houses already described, there are a prodigious number of little cells, dispersed over all the island; which consist entirely of stones, without

any the smallest help of timber. These cells are from twelve to eighteen feet in length, and a little more than seven in height. Their breadth at the foundation is nearly equal to the height. Every stone hangs above that immediately below, not perpendicularly, but inclines forward, so as to be nearer the opposite side of the grotto; and thus by imperceptible degrees, till the two highest courses are near enough to be covered by a single flag at the top. To hinder the rain from falling down between the interstices above, the upper part of the building is overlaid with turf, which looks like a fine greensward while new.

The inhabitants secure their peats, eggs, and wild-fowl within these small repositories: every St. Kildian has his share of them, in proportion to the extent of land he possesses, or the rent he pays to the steward. From the construction of these cells, and the toil they must have cost before they could have been finished, it seems plain that those who put them together were, if not more ingenious than their neighbours in the adjacent islands, at least more industrious than their own successors.

The St. Kilda method of catching wild-fowl is very entertaining. The men are divided into fowling parties, each of which consists generally of four persons distinguished by their agility and skill. Each party must have at least one rope about thirty fathoms long: this rope is made out of a strong raw cow hide, salted for that very purpose, and

cut circularly into three thongs, all of equal length; these thongs being closely twisted together form a three-fold cord, able to sustain a great weight, and durable enough to last for about two generations: to prevent the injuries it would otherwise receive from the sharp edges of the rocks, against which they must frequently strike, the cord is lined with sheep-skins, dressed in much the same manner.

This rope is a piece of furniture indispensably necessary, and the most valuable implement a man of substance can be possessed of in St. Kilda. In the testament of a father, it makes the very first article in favour of his eldest son: should it happen to fall to a daughter's share, in default of male heirs, it is reckoned equal in value to the two best cows in the island.

By the help of such ropes, the people of the greatest prowess and experience here traverse and examine rocks, prodigiously high. Linked together in couples, each having either end of the cord fastened about his waist, they go frequently through the most dreadful precipices: when one of the two descends, his colleague plants himself in a strong shelf, and takes care to have such sure footing there, that if his fellow adventurer makes a false step, and tumbles over, he may be able to save him.

The following anecdote of the present steward of St. Kilda's deputy, in the summer after I left the island, will give the reader a specimen of the dangers they undergo, and, at the same time, of

the uncommon strength of the St. Kildians. This man observing his colleague lose his hold, and tumbling down from above, placed himself so firmly upon the shelf where he stood, that he sustained the weight of his friend, after falling the whole length of the rope.

Undoubtedly these are stupendous adventures, and equal to any thing in the feats of chivalry; I was present at an operation of this kind. My curiosity led me to so uncommon a trial of skill: before it was half over, I was greatly shocked, and most heartily sick of it. Two noted heroes were drawn out from among all the ablest men of the community: one of them fixed himself on a craggy shelf: his companion went down sixty fathoms below him: and after having darted himself away from the face of a most alarming precipice, hanging over the ocean, he began to play his gambols: he sung merrily, and laughed very heartily. The crew were inexpressibly happy; but for my part, I was all the while in such distress of mind, that I could not for my life run over half the scene with my eyes. The fowler, after having performed several antic tricks, and given us all the entertainment his art could afford, returned in triumph, and full of his own merit, with a large string of fowls about his neck, and a number of eggs in his bosom.

This method of fowling resembles that of the Norwegians, as described by bishop Pontopidan: but we must here take leave of the St. Kildians.

Anecdotes of Jethro Tull, Esq; inventor of the new method of husbandry, called the horse-hoeing, or, more justly from his name, the Tullian husbandry.

Jethro Tull, Esq; of Prosperous farm, on the borders of Berkshire, where he wrote his treatise on horse-hoeing husbandry, was a gentleman of an ancient family in Oxfordshire, had a competent paternal estate, and a liberal university education, which he improved by applying himself to the study of the law, not as a profession, but to investigate the true principles of the constitution of his country, in which he hoped, one day or other, to make no inconsiderable figure. After being admitted a barrister in the Temple, he made what is called the *grand tour*, visited the several courts of Europe, and in every country through which he passed, was a diligent observer of the soil, culture, and vegetable productions natural to each; and of the different methods of ploughing, sowing, planting, and reaping; and the various instruments made use of in various countries for that purpose.

Upon his return home he settled upon his estate in Oxfordshire, married a lady of a genteel family, and being naturally inclined to an active life, occupied a farm of his own; and applied himself to the management of it in the way that he thought most rational.

In observing the vineyard culture in the most fruitful parts of France, he discovered, or thought he discovered, one general method of cultivating all land to advantage in all countries; he observed, that where the vines flourished best, the vineyards were most regularly

planted, and the soil most perfectly drest; that by frequently ploughing, hoeing, and stirring, the ground was kept fine and light, the weeds destroyed, and the soil enriched: that where this care was taken, the clusters were large and full, and the juice rich and high-flavoured; but where the vines were suffered to grow promiscuously, and all culture neglected, save pruning, the clusters were comparatively lean and meagre, the juice poor and flat, and the annual shoots far less luxuriant than in the vineyards properly managed. From these observations he concluded, that a regular method of planting or sowing every kind of vegetable was the way to propagate it to most advantage, and he began with experiments upon corn and grass to confirm or disprove his new hypothesis.

The success of the experiments he made in his garden encouraged him to extend them into his field, and he now first began to contrive instruments to facilitate the labour, and to render the whole business of husbandry as expeditious in his new way, as it was, after long practice, in the old.

Novelty always excites curiosity; many gentlemen came from different parts on the fame of this new method of farming; some of whom were persuaded by the weight of Mr. Tull's arguments, to go hand in hand with him in the course of his experiments; while others, who thought themselves more wise, and more discerning, took every occasion of ridiculing the practice, and of representing it as a fanciful project, that after a great expence would end in nothing but the ruin of the projector. In general, the whole body of farmers and husbandmen

bandmen pronounced the man a conjurer, who, by sowing a third part of his land, could make it produce a quantity equal to that of sowing the whole.

While the project engrossed the conversation of the neighbourhood for many miles round, Mr. Tull employed himself assiduously in training of servants, and in accommodating the instruments proper for his new husbandry to their limited capacities; and this work he found much harder to accomplish than he at first expected. It was less easy to drive the ploughman out of his way, than to teach the beasts of the field to perform the work. The late Lord Ducie Moreton, who followed Mr. Tull, or rather accompanied him in this laborious and vexatious business, has very frequently, if I have been rightly informed, to correct the awkwardness of his ploughmen, or overcome their obstinacy, stripped himself of his dignity, and put his hand to the plough himself.

Some time after this, Mr. Tull, by intense application, vexatious toil, and vicissitudes of heat and cold in the open fields, contracted a disorder in his breast, which not being found curable in England, obliged him a second time to travel, and to seek a cure in the milder climates of France and Italy. Here he again attended more minutely to the culture of those countries; and having little else to do, he employed himself, during three years residence abroad, to reduce his observations to writing, with a view of once more endeavouring to introduce them into practice, if ever he should be so happy as to recover his health, and be able to undergo the fatigues of a second at-

tempt. From the climate of Montpellier, and the waters of that salutary region, he found in a few months that relief, which all the power of physic could not afford him at home; and he returned to appearance perfectly repaired in his constitution, but greatly embarrassed in his fortune.

Part of his paternal estate in Oxfordshire he had sold, and before his departure had settled his family on his farm at Prosperous already mentioned, where he returned with a firm resolution to perfect his former undertaking, having, as he thought, devised means during his absence, to obviate all difficulties, and to force his new husbandry into practice by the success of it, in spite of all the opposition that should be raised by the lower class of husbandmen against it.

He revised and rectified all his old instruments, and contrived new ones proper for the different soils of his new farm; and he now went on pretty successfully, though not rapidly, nor much less expensively, in the prosecution of his new system. He demonstrated to all the world the good effects of his horse-hoeing culture; and by raising crops of wheat without dunging, for thirteen years together, in the same field, equal in quantity, and superior in quality, to those of his neighbours in the ordinary course, he demonstrated the truth of his own doctrine, that labour and arrangement would supply the place of dung and fallow, and would produce more corn at an equal or less expence. The advantages attending the new husbandry were now visible to all the world; and it was now that Mr. Tull was prevailed upon by the solicitations of
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the neighbouring gentlemen, who were witnesses of its utility, to publish his theory, illustrated by a genuine account of the result of it in practice, which he engaged to do, and faithfully performed at no trivial expence.

Not led by vanity, nor encouraged by the hope of gain, to commence author, he at first thought only of methodizing his thoughts, and classing his observations into some order for the use of his friends; but when he once engaged, the subject ripened in his hands, and, like the vegetables under his culture, grew more full and perfect by a nice and orderly arrangement.

A genius, and a man zealous for his own reputation and the public service, cannot handle a favourite subject superficially. He entered into the vegetable properties of plants, their production and nutrition, with the precision of a philosopher; and he laid down the methods by which they were to be propagated, with the knowledge of an old experienced husbandman. The instruments which, after various trials, he had found to answer the best, he caused to be carefully constructed, and he had them drawn, and accurately described by good artists, under his own inspection; they were not filched from one invention, under pretence of supplying the defects of another, with a view to acquire the reputation of a mechanic, but were all the genuine production of his own invention, tried and altered again and again till they actually performed with accuracy and facility the work they were intended to complete. Such are the instruments which Mr. Tull has exhibited, and which have been altered and disjointed, rendered

imperfect, and utterly useless, by pretended improvers both at home and abroad, who perhaps never saw the originals, and who had not genius to comprehend the drawings, much less to improve and render them more useful.

The intention of this short essay is to prevent gentlemen from attending to the superficial nonsense of many writers on husbandry, who disgrace the subject, and to direct the practical farmer, who is really in earnest to improve his farm, to the genuine source from whence he may draw that true and experienced knowledge that may be safely relied upon in practice; if that practice can be luckily introduced.

D. Y.

Hungerford, Oct. 18, 1764.

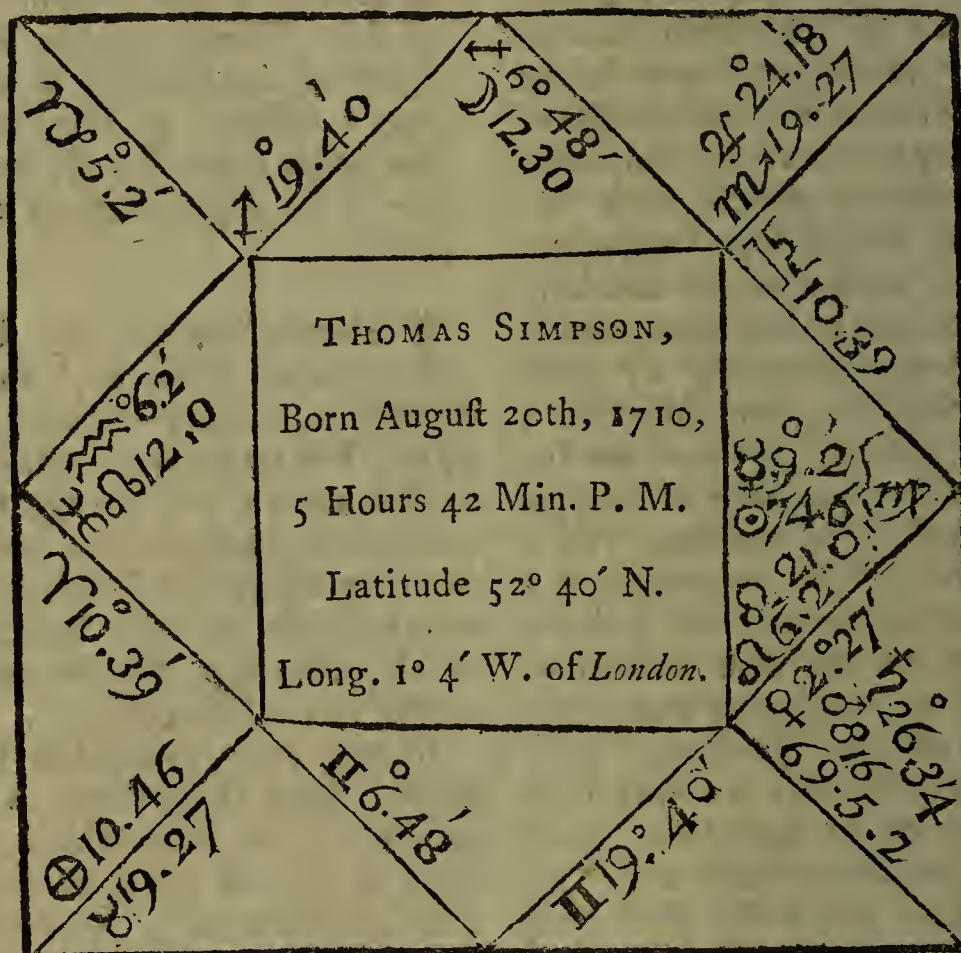
Some account of the life and writings of Mr. Thomas Simpson, late professor of mathematics at his majesty's academy at Woolwich, fellow of the Royal Society, and member of the Royal Academy at Stockholm.

Thomas Simpson was born at Market Bosworth, in Leicestershire, August the 20th, O. S. 1710. His father was a stuff-weaver in that town; and though in tolerable circumstances, yet, intending to bring up his son Thomas to his own business, he took so little care of his education, that he was only taught to read English.

In the year 1724, the 11th of May, there happened a great eclipse of the sun, which proved total in several parts of England. This phenomenon, so awful to many who are ignorant of the cause

cause of it, struck the mind of young Simpson with a strong curiosity to enter into the reason of it, and so to be able to predict the like surprising events. It was, however, five or six years before he could obtain his desire, which at length was gratified by the following accident. Being at the house of a relation, where he had resided some time, a pedlar came that way, and took a lodging at the same house. This man, to his profession of an itinerant merchant, had joined the more profitable one of a fortune-teller, which he performed by dint of judicial astrology. Every one knows with what regard persons of such a cast are treated by the inhabitants of country villages: it cannot be surprising therefore that an untutored lad of nineteen should look upon this man as a

prodigy, and, regarding him in this light, should endeavour to ingratiate himself into his favour; in which he succeeded so well, that the sage was no less taken with the quick natural parts and genius of his new acquaintance. The pedlar intending a journey to Bristol fair, left in the hands of young Simpson, who had now taught himself to write, an old edition of Cocker's arithmetic, to which was subjoined a short appendix on Algebra, and a book of Partridge the almanack maker, on genitures. These he had perused to so good purpose, during the absence of his friend, as to excite his amazement upon his return; in consequence of which he set himself about erecting the following genethliacal type, in order to a presage of Thomas's future fortune.



This position of the heavens the wizard having very maturely considered *secundum artem*, did, with much confidence, pronounce, that *within two years time* Simpson *would turn out a greater man than himself*.

It was not long after this that Mr. Simpson, being pretty well qualified to erect a figure himself, did, by the advice of his friend, make an open profession of casting nativities; from whence he derived a pretty pittance, so that he quite neglected his weaving, to which indeed he had never manifested any very great attachment, and soon became the oracle of Bosworth and its environs. Scarce a courtship advanced to a match, or a bargain to a sale, without previously consulting the infallible Simpson about the consequences. Helping folks to stolen goods he always declared above his match; and that as to life and death he had no power. All those called *lawful Questions* he readily resolved, provided the persons were certain as to the horary *Data* of the horoscope: and, I have heard him say, more than once, with such success, that if, from very cogent reasons, he had not been thoroughly convinced of the vain foundation and fallaciousness of his art, he never should have dropt it, as he then thought himself in conscience bound to do, and accordingly abandoned it at once.

Together with his astrology he had furnished himself with enough of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, to be qualified for looking into the *Ladies Diary* (of which he had afterwards the direction) whereby he came to understand

that there was still an higher branch of mathematical knowledge than any he had been yet acquainted with; and this was the method of *Fluxions*: nevertheless our young annalist was altogether at a loss to discover any English author who had written on the subject, except Mr. Hayes; and his work being a folio, and then pretty scarce, exceeded his ability of purchasing: however, an acquaintance lent him Mr. Stone's *Fluxions*, which is a translation of the *Marquis de l'Hospital's Analyse des infiniments Petits*: by this one book and his own penetrating talents, he was, as we shall presently see, enabled in a very few years to compose a much more accurate treatise on this subject than any that had before appeared in our language.

After he had bid adieu to astrology and its emoluments, he was driven to hardships for the subsistence of his family, having married a widow with two children, who soon brought him two more. He came up to London, and for some time wrought at his business in Spitalfields, and taught mathematics when he had any spare time. His industry turned to so good account, that he went home and brought up his wife and children to settle in London. The number of his scholars increasing, and his abilities becoming in some measure known to the public, he put forth proposals for publishing by subscription, *A new Treatise of Fluxions, wherein the Direct and Inverse Methods are demonstrated after a new, clear, and concise manner, with their Application to Physics and Astronomy. Also, the Doctrine*

trine of infinite Series and reverting Series universally and amply explained; fluxionary and exponential Equations solved, &c.

When Mr. Simpson first proposed his intentions of publishing such a work, he did not know of any English book founded on the true principles of *Fluxions*, that contained any thing material, especially the practical part; and though there had been some very curious things done by several learned and ingenious gentlemen, the principles were nevertheless left obscure and defective, and all that had been done by any of them in *infinite Series*, very inconsiderable.

The book was not published till 1737; the author having been frequently interrupted from furnishing the press so fast as he could have wished, through his unavoidable attention to his pupils, for his immediate support. The principles of *Fluxions* therein treated of, are demonstrated in a method exactly true and genuine, not essentially different from that of their great inventor, being altogether expounded by *finite quantities*. In the first and second parts are given a great many new, and some very curious examples in the solutions of problems, rendered plain to ordinary capacities.

The second part treats of *infinite Series*, where nothing is proposed without demonstration, and every thing illustrated by easy examples. A set of new rules are laid down for finding the forms of series, without taking in any of the superfluous terms.

The third part contains a fami-

liar method of finding and comparing fluents, illustrated with some useful and easy applications.

In the fourth part is shewn the use of *Fluxions* in some of the sublimest branches of *Physics* and *Astronomy*; where, besides several things done in a method quite different from any thing to be met with in other authors, there are some very useful speculations relating to the *Doctrine of Pendulums* and *Centripetal Forces*.

To this is added, a *Supplement*, being a collection of miscellaneous problems, independent of the foregoing four parts; and containing, among other matters, an investigation of the areas of *Spherical Triangles*; the *Curve of Pursuit*; the *Paths of Shadows*; the motion of *Projectiles* in a *Medium*; and the manner of finding the *attractive force* of bodies in different forms, acting according to a given law.

In 1740, Mr. Simpson published a treatise *On the Nature and Laws of Chance*, in 4to. To which is annexed, *full and clear investigations of two important Problems added in the second edition of Mr. De Moivre's Book on Chances*; and *Two new Methods for summing of Series*.

His next performance was a 4to. volume of *Essays on several curious and useful Subjects in speculative and mixed Mathematics*. Dedicated to Francis Blake, Esq; since fellow of the Royal Society, and his very good friend and patron. Printed in the same year 1740.

The first of these essays shews the theory of the apparent place of the stars (commonly called their *Aberration*) arising from the progressive motion of light, and
of

of the earth in its orbit, with practical rules for computing the same, communicated by Dr. Bevis.

The second treats of the motion of bodies affected by projectile and centripetal forces; wherein the most considerable matters in the first book of *Newton's Principia* are clearly investigated.

The third is a solution of Kepler's problem, with a concise practical rule.

The fourth is of the motion and paths of projectiles in resisting mediums; determining the most important things upon this head, in the second book of the *Principia*.

The fifth considers the resistances, velocities, and times of vibration of pendulous bodies in mediums.

The sixth contains a new method of solution, of all kinds of algebraical equations in numbers, more general than ever before given.

The seventh is about the method of *Increments*, with examples.

The eighth is a short investigation of a theorem for finding the sum of a series of quantities, by means of their differences.

The ninth is a general way of investigating the sum of a recurring series.

The tenth is a new and general method for finding the sum of any series of powers, whose roots are in arithmetical progression; and applicable to series of other kinds.

The eleventh concerns angular sections, with some remarkable properties of the circle.

The twelfth shews an easy and

expeditious method of reducing a compound fraction to simple ones.

The thirteenth and last, containing a general quadrature of hyperbolic curves, is a problem that had exercised the skill of several great mathematicians; none of the solutions then published extended further than to particular cases, except one in the *Philosophical Transactions*, without demonstration, by M. Klingenshierna, professor of mathematics at Upsal. This Mr. Simpson has here investigated by two different methods, and rendered the general construction extremely easy, simple, and fit for practice.

M. Klingenshierna appears to have been well pleased with what Mr. Simpson had done; for being afterwards appointed secretary to the Royal Academy at Stockholm, as a mark of his esteem, he procured a diploma to be transmitted to him, whereby he was constituted a member of that learned body.

The Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions deduced from general and evident Principles: with useful Tables shewing the Values of single and joint Lives, &c. 8vo. 1742. This in 1743 was followed by an *Appendix, containing some Remarks on a late Book on the same Subject* (by Mr. Abr. de Moivre, F. R. S.) *with Answers to some personal and malignant Representations in the Preface thereof.*

Mr. de Moivre never thought fit to reply to it.

In 1743 he published his *Mathematical Dissertations on a Variety of Physical and Analytical Subjects*, in 4to. containing, among other particulars,

A demonstration of the true figure

figure which the earth, or any planet, must acquire from its rotation about an axis.

A general investigation of the attraction at the surfaces of bodies nearly spherical.

A determination of the meridional parts, and the lengths of the several degrees of the meridian, according to the true figure of the earth.

An investigation of the height of the tides in the ocean.

A new theory of astronomical refractions, with exact tables deduced therefrom.

A new and very exact method for approximating the roots of equations in number; which quintuples the number of places at each operation.

Several new methods for the summation of series.

Some new and very useful improvements in the inverse method of fluxions.

This work he dedicated to Martin Folkes, Esq; president of the Royal Society.

His next book was a *Treatise of Algebra, wherein the Fundamental Principles are fully and clearly demonstrated, and applied to the Solution of a Variety of Problems*. To which he added, *The construction of a great Number of Geometrical Problems, with the Method of resolving them numerically*.

This work was designed for the use of young beginners; inscribed to William Jones, Esq; F. R. S. and printed in 1745, 8vo. A new edition appeared in 1745, with additions and improvements. This is dedicated to James earl of Morton, F. R. S. Mr. Jones being dead.

Elements of Geometry, with their

Application to the Mensuration of Superficies and Solids, to the Determination of Maxima and Minima, and to the Construction of a great Variety of Geometrical Problems. First published in 1747, in 8vo. A second edition came out in 1760, with large alterations and additions, designed for young beginners, particularly for the gentlemen educated at the King's Academy at Woolwich, and dedicated to Charles Frederick, Esq; surveyor general of the ordnance.

In 1748 came out his *Trigonometry, Plane and Spherical, with the Construction and Application of Logarithms*, 8vo. This little book contains several things new and useful.

Select Exercises for young Proficients in the Mathematics, 8vo. 1752.

It contains a large variety of algebraical problems, with their solutions.

A select number of geometrical problems, with their solutions, both algebraical and geometrical.

The theory of gunnery, independent of the conic sections.

A new and very comprehensive method for finding the roots of equations in numbers.

A short account of the first principles of fluxions.

The valuation of annuities for single and joint lives, with a set of new tables, far more extensive than any extant.—This last was designed as a supplement to his *Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions*, but being thought too small to be published alone, it was inserted here. The examples given are according to the London mortality bills; but the solutions are general,

neral, and may be applied with equal facility and advantage to any table of observations. The dedication is to John Bacon, Esq; F. R. S.

The Doctrine and Application of Fluxions, containing, besides what is common on the Subject, a Number of new Improvements in the Theory, and the Solution of a Variety of new and very interesting Problems in different Branches of the Mathematics. Two volumes 8vo. 1750.

In the preface the author offers this to the world as a new book, rather than a second edition of that published in 1737, in which he acknowledges, that, besides press-errors, there are several obscurities and defects, for want of experience, and the many disadvantages he then laboured under, in his first fally.

The notion and explication here given of the first principles of *Fluxions*, are not essentially different from what they are in his former treatise, though expressed in other terms. The consideration of *Time* introduced into the general definition, will, he says, perhaps be disliked by those who would have fluxions to be *mere Velocities*: but the advantage of considering them *otherwise* (not as the velocities themselves, but the magnitudes *they* would uniformly generate in a given *Time*) appears to obviate any objection on that head.

By taking fluxions as *mere Velocities*, the imagination is confined, as it were, to a point, and, without proper care, insensibly involved in metaphysical difficulties. But according to this other method of explaining the matter, less caution in the learner is neces-

sary, and the higher orders of fluxions are rendered much more easy and intelligible.—Besides, though Sir Isaac Newton defines fluxions to be *the Velocities of Motions*, yet he has recourse to the increments or moments generated in equal particles of time, in order to determine those velocities; which he afterwards teaches to expound by finite magnitudes of other kinds.

This work is dedicated to George earl of Macclesfield.

Mr. Simpson's *Miscellaneous Tracts*, printed in 1757 in 4to. was his last legacy to the public: a most valuable bequest, whether we consider the dignity and importance of the subjects, or his sublime and accurate manner of treating them.

The first of these papers is concerned in determining the *Precession of the Equinox*. It was drawn up about the year 1752, in consequence of another on the same subject, by M. de Sylvabelle, a French gentleman. Though its author had gone through one *Part* of the subject with success and perspicuity, and his conclusions were perfectly conformable to Dr. Bradley's observations; he nevertheless appeared to Mr. Simpson to have greatly failed in a very material, and, indeed, the only very difficult part; that is, in the determination of the *momentary Alteration* of the position of the earth's axis, caused by the forces of the *Sun* and *Moon*; of which forces the quantities, but not the effects, are truly investigated.

The second paper contains the investigation of a very exact method or rule for finding the place of a *Planet* in its *Orbit*, from a

correction of bishop Ward's circular hypothesis, by means of certain equations applied to the motion about the upper focus of the ellipse. By this method, the result, even in the orbit of *Mercury*, may be found within a second of the truth, and that without repeating the operation.

The third shews the manner of transforming the motion of a *Comet* from a *parabolic*, to an *elliptic Orbit*; being of great use, when the *observed Places* of a (new) *Comet*, are found to differ sensibly from those computed on the hypothesis of a parabolic orbit.

The fourth is an attempt to shew, from mathematical principles, the advantages arising from taking the *Mean* of a *Number* of observations, in *practical Astronomy*; wherein the odds that the result, this way, is more exact, than from one single observation, is evinced, and the utility of the method to practice, clearly made appear.

The fifth contains the determination of certain *Fluents*, and the resolution of some very useful *Equations*, in the higher orders of fluxions, by means of the measures of angles and ratios, and the right and versed sines of circular arcs.

The sixth treats of the resolution of algebraical equations, by the method of surd-divisors; wherein the grounds of that method, as laid down by Sir Isaac Newton, are investigated and explained.

The seventh exhibits the investigation of a *general Rule* for the resolution of *Isoperimetrical Problems* of all orders, with some examples of the use and application of the said rule.

The eighth, and last, comprehends the resolution of some general and very important problems in *Mechanics* and *physical Astronomy*, wherein, among others, the principal parts of the third and ninth *Sections* of the first *Book* of Sir Isaac Newton's *Principia*, are demonstrated, in a new and concise manner.—But what may best recommend this excellent tract, is the application of the general equations therein derived, to the determination of the LUNAR ORBIT.

According to what Mr. Simpson had intimated at the conclusion of his *Doctrine of Fluxions*, the greatest part of this arduous undertaking was drawn up in the year 1750. About that time M. Clairaut, a very eminent mathematician of the *Parisian* academy, had started an objection against Sir Isaac Newton's general law of gravitation. This was a motive to induce Mr. Simpson (among some others) to endeavour to discover whether the motion of the moon's *Apogee*, on which that objection had its whole weight and foundation, could not be truly accounted for, without supposing a change in the received law of gravitation, from the *inverse Ratio of the Squares of the Distances*. The success answered his hopes, and induced him to look further into other parts of the theory of the moon's motion, than he had at first intended: but before he had compleated his design, Mr. Clairaut arrived in England, and made Mr. Simpson a visit; from whom he learnt, that he had a little before printed a *Piece* on that subject, a copy of which Mr. Simpson afterwards received as a present, and found in it the same things

things demonstrated, to which himself had directed his enquiry, besides several others.

The *facility* of the method Mr. Simpson fell upon, and the *Extensiveness* of it, will in some measure appear from this; that it not only determines the motion of the *Apo-gee*, in the same manner, and with the same ease, as the other equations, but utterly excludes all that dangerous kind of terms that had embarrassed the greatest *Mathematicians*, and would, after a great number of revolutions, entirely change the figure of the moon's orbit. From whence this important consequence is derived, that the moon's *Mean Motion*, and the *greatest Quantities of the several Equations*, will remain unchanged, unless disturbed by the intervention of some foreign or accidental cause.

These miscellanies are inscribed to the earl of Macclesfield, president of the Royal Society.

Several papers of Mr. Simpson's were read at meetings of the Royal Society, and printed in their *Transactions*: but as most, if not all of them, were afterwards inserted, with alterations or additions, in his printed volumes, it would be needless to take any notice of them here.

From Mr. Simpson's writings, I now return to himself. Through the interest and solicitations of the before-mentioned William Jones, Esq; he was, in 1743, appointed professor of mathematics, then vacant by the death of Mr. Denham, in the king's academy at Woolwich; his warrant bearing date August 25. Not long after this he was admitted fellow of the Royal

Society in 1745, having been proposed as a candidate by Martin Folkes, Esq; president, William Jones, Esq; Mr. George Graham, and Mr. John Machin, secretary; all very eminent mathematicians. The president and council, in consideration of his very moderate circumstances, were pleased to excuse his admission fees, and likewise his giving bond for the settled future payments. At the academy he exerted his faculties to the utmost, in instructing the pupils who were the immediate objects of his duty, as well as others whom the superior officers of the ordnance permitted to be boarded and lodged in his house. In his manner of teaching he had a peculiar and happy address; a certain dignity and perspicuity, tempered with such a degree of mildness, as engaged both the attention, esteem, and friendship of his scholars; of which the good of the service, as well as of the community, was a necessary consequence. Notwithstanding the applause of superiors, which Mr. Simpson acquired in the acquittal of his duty at Woolwich, he had the misfortune to find his health decline, through his close manner of living, and the want of conversing with his friends. His weak constitution of body was ill adapted to the vigour of his mind, having been framed with originally weak nerves. Exercise and a proper regimen were prescribed him, but to little purpose: for he sunk gradually into such a lowness of spirits, as often in a manner deprived him of his mental faculties, and at last rendered him incapable of performing

ing his duty, or even of reading the letters of his friends: and so trifling an accident as the dropping of a tea-cup would flurry him as much as if a house had tumbled down.

The physicians advised his native air for his recovery; and in February 1761, he set out, with much reluctance (believing he should never return) for Bosworth, along with some relations. The journey fatigued him to such a degree, that upon his arrival, he betook himself to his chamber, where he grew continually worse and worse, to the day of his death, May the 14th, in the fifty-first year of his age.

He left a son and a daughter; the former an officer in the royal regiment of artillery, at present in America. The king, at the instances of lord viscount Ligonier, in consideration of Mr. Simpson's great merits, was graciously pleased to grant a pension to his widow, together with handsome apartments adjoining to the academy: a favour never conferred on any before.

The life of the Abbé de la Caille, member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, &c.

Nicholas-Louis de la Caille was born at a little town called Rumigny, in the diocese of Rheims, the first of March, in the year 1713. His father was Louis de la Caille, his mother Barbara Rubuy; both happier in qualities of mind than affluence of fortune. The father had served in the army, which he quitted, and in his

retirement studied mathematics, and amused himself with mechanic exercises, wherein he proved the happy author of several inventions of considerable use to the public.

Nicholas, almost in his infancy, took a fancy to mechanics, which proved of signal service to him in his maturer years. He was sent young to school at Mantes-sur-Seine, where he discovered such early tokens of genius, as gave his parents sanguine hopes of his future improvement.

In 1729 he went to Paris, and studied at the college de Lisieux, first the classics, and then philosophy and mathematics, under M. Robert. In a few years his father died, and with him all family expectations; however, he happily met with a patron in the duke of Bourbon, who heard of his merit, and had been beneficent to his father.

After he had finished his course of philosophy, he went to study divinity at the college de Navarre, proposing to embrace an ecclesiastical life. Here he redoubled his studies, employing many hours of the day in reading books of religion, and as many of the night in mathematical exercises, or in contemplating the stars. This was his constant tenor of life for three years.

At length he was ordained a deacon, and officiated as such in the church of the college de Mazarin several years; but he never entered into priest's orders, apprehending that his astronomical studies, to which he became most assiduously devoted, might too much interfere with his religious duties. His reputation

putation in astronomy soon procured him access to the late James Cassini, the king's first astronomer, and to the present M. Maraldi, who both had apartments, and all manner of instruments and accommodations in the royal observatory. With these he contracted a most intimate familiarity and friendship; and in the year 1738 he assisted the latter in a survey of the sea-coast from Bayonne to Nantes.

In 1739, he was conjoined with M. de Thury, the son of the before-mentioned M. Cassini, in verifying the meridian of the royal observatory, through the whole extent of the kingdom of France. In the month of November, of the same year, whilst he was engaged day and night in the operations which this grand undertaking required, and at a great distance from Paris, he was, without any solicitation, or even knowing any thing of the matter, elected into the vacant mathematical chair, which the celebrated M. Varignon had so worthily filled. Here he began to teach about the end of 1740, after his return from his laborious expedition, and caused his lectures in due time to be printed at his own expence.

The hours that could be spared from the duties of his professorship, he employed in carefully computing the results of the many mensurations and observations celestial and terrestrial, relative to the business of the meridian. In the mean time, an observatory was ordered to be erected for his use in the college, and furnished with a suitable apparatus of the best instruments.

In May 1741, M. de la Caille

was admitted into the Royal Academy of Sciences, as an adjoint member, for astronomy. Besides the many excellent papers of his dispersed up and down in their memoirs, he published elements of geometry, mechanics, optics, and astronomy. Moreover he carefully computed all the eclipses of the sun and moon that had happened since the Christian æra, which were printed in a book, published by two Benedictines, intituled, *L'Art de verifier les dates, &c. Paris, 1750, in 4to.*

Besides these, he compiled a volume of astronomical Ephemerides for the years 1745 to 1755; another for the years 1755 to 1765; a third for the years 1765 to 1775; an excellent work, intituled, *Astronomiæ fundamenta novissimis solis & stellarum observationibus stabilita*, and the most correct solar tables that ever appeared.

Having gone through a seven years series of astronomical observations in his own observatory, he formed a project of going to observe the southern stars at the Cape of Good Hope. This was highly approved of by the academy, and by the prime minister comte d'Argenson, and very readily agreed to by the states of Holland.

Upon this he drew up a plan of the method he proposed to pursue in his southern observations, setting forth that, besides settling the places of the fixed stars, he proposed to determine the parallax of the Moon, Mars, and Venus. But whereas this required correspondent observations to be made in the northern parts of the world, he sent to those of his correspondents who were expert

in practical astronomy*, previous notice in print, what observations he designed to make at such and such times, for the said purpose.

Then without further loss of time he packed up his instruments and made preparations for his voyage; which count d'Argenson being informed of, sent him 4000 livres, though he had never solicited any such favour, and with it a written promise of whatever further sum he might have occasion for; this however was but a small addition to his purse, for he expended in the purchase of new and larger instruments much more than he was before possessed of.

At length, on the twenty-first of October 1750, he set out from Paris for the Cape, accompanied only by a young artificer, who, from the great affection he bore him, earnestly requested that he might be the companion of his voyage. He sailed from Port l'Orient the twenty-first of November on board the *Glorieux*, and had the happiness to find the captain† a very civil man, and a good mathematician, which was no small satisfaction to him; and he proved an excellent help-mate in observing the latitudes, longitudes, &c. during the whole voyage. They arrived at the Cape the 19th of April 1751.

Having waited on the gover-

nor M. Tulbagh, who received him with great civility, and during his stay there conferred incessant favours upon him, he forthwith got his instruments on shore, and with the assistance of some Dutch artificers set about building an astronomical observatory, in which his apparatus of instruments was properly disposed, as soon as it was in fit condition to receive them.

The sky at the Cape is generally pure and serene, unless when a south-east wind blows. But this is often the case, and when it is, is attended with some strange as well as terrible effects. The stars look bigger, and seem to caper; the moon has an undulating tremor; and the planets have a sort of beard, like comets.

Two hundred and twenty-eight nights did our astronomer survey the southern heavens, during which space, which is almost incredible, he observed more than ten thousand stars: and whereas the ancients filled the heavens with monsters and old wives tales, the abbé de la Caille chose rather to adorn them with the instruments and machines which the modern philosophy has made use of in the conquest of nature. See the planisphere in his *Cælum Australe Stelliferum*.

With no less success did he attend to the parallax of the Moon, Mars, Venus, and Sun.

* These, besides his astronomical brethren of the Royal Academy of Sciences, were Dr. Bradley at Greenwich, Dr. Bevis at London, Messrs. Muller and Grischow at Petersburg, Mr. Struyk at Amsterdam, Mr. Wargentini at Stockholm, Mr. Ferner at Upsal, M. Mayer at Gottingen. Likewise several Jesuit astronomers, F. Boscowich at Rome, Fs. Hell and Scheffer at Vienna, F. Ximenes at Florence, F. Pezenas at Marseilles, Fs. Gaubil and Benoist at Pekin.

† M. d'Après de Mainville, author of an excellent work, intituled, *Le Neptune Oriental*.

Having thus executed the purpose of this voyage, and no present opportunity offering for his return, he thought of employing the vacant time in another arduous attempt: no less than that of taking the measure of the earth, as he had already done that of the heavens. This indeed had, through the munificence of the French king, been done before by different sets of learned men, both in Europe and America; some determining the quantity of a degree under the equator, and others under the arctic circle: but it had not as yet been decided whether in the southern parallels of latitude the same dimensions obtained, as in the northern. This point one single man resolved to examine into, accompanied only with his friend Mr. Bestbier (at whose house he lodged) as a guide and interpreter, the young artificer before mentioned, and a few Hottentot servants.

His labours were rewarded with the satisfaction he wished for, having determined a distance of 410,814 feet from a place called Klip-Fonteyn to the Cape, by means of a base of 38,802 feet three times actually measured: whence he discovered a new secret of nature, namely, that the radii of the parallels in south latitude are not the same as those of the corresponding parallels in north latitude. About the thirty-third degree of south latitude he found a degree on the meridian to contain 342,222 Paris feet.

The next French ship which arrived at the Cape brought M. de la Caille instructions not to

return home, but to proceed to the isles of France and Bourbon, in order to determine the position of them, which had indeed been done the last year by the above mentioned M. d'Après de Mainville; however he chose to obey the royal mandate, and went.

He returned to Paris the 27th of September 1754, having in his almost four years absence expended no more than 9144 livres on himself and his companion: a singular instance of honest frugality in so profuse and luxurious an age! Nor should it pass unmentioned, that at his coming into port he refused a bribe of 100,000 livres, offered by one who thirsted less after glory than gain, to be a sharer in his immunity from custom-house searches.

After receiving the congratulatory visits of his more intimate friends, and the astronomers, he first of all thought fit to draw up a reply to some strictures which professor Euler had published relative to the meridian, and then he settled the results of the comparison of his own with the observations of other astronomers, for the parallaxes. That of the Sun he fixed at $9''$, of the Moon at $56' 56''$, of Mars in his opposition $36''$, of Venus $38''$. He also settled the laws whereby astronomical refractions are varied by the different density or rarity of the air, by heat or cold, and dryness or moisture. And lastly, he shewed an easy, and, by common navigators, practicable method of finding the longitude at sea, by means of the moon, which he illustrated by examples selected from

from his own observations during his voyages.

His fame being now established upon so firm a basis, the most celebrated academies of Europe claimed him as their own, and he was elected unanimously a member of the Royal Society of London, of the Institute of Bologna, of the Imperial Academy of Petersburg, and of the Royal Academies of Berlin, Stockholm, and Gottingen.

In the year 1760, M. de la Caille was attacked with a severe fit of the gout, which however did not interrupt the course of his studies, for he then planned out a new and immense work, no less than a history of astronomy through all ages, with a comparison of the ancient and modern observations, and the construction and use of the instruments employed in making them. In order to pursue the task he had imposed upon himself in a suitable retirement, he obtained a grant of apartments in the royal palace of Vincennes; and whilst his astronomical apparatus was erecting there, he began printing his catalogue of the southern stars *, and the third volume of his Ephemerides †.

The state of his health, formerly confirmed by his labours, was towards the end of the winter of 1763 greatly reduced. His blood grew inflamed, he had pains of the head, obstructions of the kidneys,

loss of appetite, with an oppletion of the whole habit. His mind remained unaffected, and he resolutely persisted in his studies as usual. In the month of March medicines were administered to him, which rather aggravated than alleviated his symptoms: and he was now sensible that the same disorder which in Africa ten years before yielded to a few simple remedies, did, in his native country, bid defiance to the best physicians; this induced him to settle his affairs: his manuscripts he committed to the care and discretion of his esteemed friend M. Maraldi. It was at last determined that a vein should be opened, but this brought on an obstinate lethargy, in which he died the twenty-third day of March, being then forty-nine years old.

He was naturally of a robust habit, with a very comely, open countenance, significant of the complexion of his mind; humane, friendly, modest to an extreme.

Some account of the life of the late excellent and eminent Stephen Hales, D. D. F. R. S. chiefly from materials communicated by P. Collinson, F. R. S.

Stephen Hales, D. D. was born on the 7th of September 1677. His father was Thomas Hales, Esq; the eldest son of Sir Robert

* Mr. Maraldi finished the edition, and gave it the title of *Cœlum Australe Stelliferum*.

† This last volume was printed off before the author's death, but not published. M. Bailly made an addition to it, with this title: *Catalogue de 515 Etoiles Zodiacales, observées en 1760 et 1761, par M. l'abbé de la Caille, et eduites au-commencement de l'année 1765, par M. Bailly de l'Academie des Sciences.*

Hales of Beckesbourn, in Kent, who was created a baronet by King Charles II. on the 12th of July 1670; his mother was Mary, the daughter and heiress of Richard Wood, of Abbots Langley, in Hertfordshire. They had many children, and Stephen was their sixth son.

After he had been properly instructed in grammar learning, he was sent to the university of Cambridge, and on the 19th of June 1696, being in his 19th year, was entered a pensioner of Corpus Christi or Bennet College, under the tuition of Mr. Robert Moss, who was then a fellow of that house, and who, in 1713, was advanced to the deanry of Ely.

Stephen, having taken his first degree of bachelor of arts, was pre-elected into a fellowship of his college on the 16th of April 1702, being then in his 25th year; he was admitted into this fellowship on the 25th of February following; he proceeded master of arts at the next commencement; some time afterwards entered into orders, and became bachelor of divinity in 1711.

While he resided in the college, he applied himself with great assiduity and success to the study of natural and experimental philosophy. One of the first associates of his studies was William Stukely, now M. D. fellow of the College of Physicians, and F. R. S. who came to reside at Corpus Christi College at Lady-day 1704. With this gentleman he used to ramble over Gogmagog hills, and the bogs of Cherry Hunt-Moor, to gather simples, with Ray's *Catalogus Plantarum circa Cantabrigiam nascentium* in his pocket, to which

Stukely, who was a ready draughtsman, had added a map of the country, the better to direct them in their peregrinations: in some of these expeditions they collected fossils from the gravel and chalk-pits; and in others they hunted butterflies, having contrived an instrument for taking them.

Mr. Hales also, in conjunction with his friend Stukely, applied himself to the study of anatomy, frequently dissecting frogs, and other animals, in their herbalizing walks; they proceeded also to the dissection of dogs, and Mr. Hales contrived a method of obtaining a preparation of the lungs in lead, of which Dr. Stukely has now several specimens.

He placed a musket barrel over a pan of lighted charcoal, so as to be kept in an equal and pretty considerable degree of heat: he then took the lungs of a dog, with the windpipe, and having fastened the windpipe very closely to the touch-hole of the barrel, he applied a pair of bellows to the muzzle, and thus poured a stream of air, heated by its passage through the barrel, into the lungs; by continuing this for about an hour, so as to keep the lungs always inflated, they were at length perfectly dried in an inflated state, so as not to collapse when taken away from the gun barrel; they were then properly placed as a mould, and melted lead poured into them, the metal not being more heated than just to bring it into fusion; the lungs, thus filled, were put into cold water, and suffered to macerate till their whole substance washed off, and left a perfect cast in lead of all their fine pipes and cavities, in all their various convolutions,

lutions, and in their natural situation with respect to each other.

They applied themselves also to chymistry, and repeated many of Mr. Boyle's experiments, making flowers of *benzoin*, *pulvis fulminans*, *elixir proprietatis*, and various other preparations, some of use, some of curiosity; but besides what they did between them, they attended the chymical lectures that were then read by the public professor signior Vigani, in Queen's College cloysters, and went also to see the chymical operations which he performed in a room in Trinity College, which had been the laboratory of Sir Isaac Newton, and in which, unfortunately for the world, Sir *Isaac*'s manuscript concerning chymical principles was accidentally burnt.

Mr. Hales was equally assiduous and successful in the study of astronomy; for having acquired a perfect knowledge of the Newtonian system, he contrived a machine to demonstrate it, which was constructed of brass, and moved by wheels, so as to represent the motions of all the planets, upon the same principles, and nearly in the same manner, as the machine afterwards constructed by Mr. Rowley, master of mathematics to king George I. which was absurdly called an Orrery, because an earl of Orrery was Rowley's patron. This machine of Hales's was supposed to be the first of the kind; but it appeared that Dr. Cumberland, rector of All-Saints at Stamford, and afterwards bishop of Peterborough, had constructed one of them before, when he was fellow of Magdalen College, Cambridge.

Stukely, at the request of his friend Hales, made a drawing of

the sphere he invented, and that original drawing is still in his possession.

About the year 1710, he was presented to the perpetual cure of Teddington near Twickenham, in Middlesex, and afterwards accepted of the living of Porlock in Somersetshire, which vacated his fellowship in the college, and which he exchanged for the living of Farringdon in Hampshire.

Soon after he married Mary, the daughter and heiress of Dr. Newce, who was rector of Halisham in Suffex, but resided at Much Had-dam in Hertfordshire.

On the 13th of March 171⁷/₈, he was elected member of the Royal Society; and on the 5th of March, in the year following, he exhibited an account of some experiments he had lately made on the effect of the sun's warmth in raising the sap in trees. This procured him the thanks of the society, who also requested him to prosecute the subject.

With this request, which was like the charge given by Pharaoh's daughter to the mother of Moses, to take care of her son, Hales complied with great pleasure; and on the 14th of June 1725, exhibited a treatise in which he gave an account of his progress. This treatise being highly applauded by the society, he farther enlarged and improved it, and in April 1727 he published it under the title of *Vegetable Statics, or an account of some statical experiments on the sap in vegetables, being an essay towards a natural history of vegetation; also a specimen of an attempt to analyse the air, by a great variety of chemico-statical experiments, which were read at several meetings of the Royal Society.*

This

This work he dedicated to his late majesty king George the second, who was then prince of Wales; and was, the same year, chosen one of the council of the Royal Society. Sir Hans Sloane being at the same annual election chosen their president.

The *Vegetable Statics* was well received, and a second edition of it was published in 1731; in a preface to this edition Mr. Hales promised a sequel to the work, which he published in 1733, under the title of *Statistical essays, containing Hæmastatics, or an account of some hydraulic hydrostatical experiments made on the blood and blood-vessels of animals; also an account of some experiments on stones in the kidney and bladder; with an enquiry into the nature of these anomalous concretions; to which is added, an appendix containing observations and experiments relating to several subjects in the first volume.*

In 1732 he was appointed one of the trustees for establishing a new colony in Georgia. On the 5th of July 1733, the university of Oxford honoured him with a diploma for the degree of doctor in divinity, a mark of distinction the more honourable, as it is not usual for one university to confer academical honours on those who were educated at another.

In 1734, when the health and morals of the lower and middling class of people were subverted by the excessive drinking of gin, he published, though without his name, *A friendly admonition to the drinkers of brandy, and other spirituous liquors*, which was afterwards twice re-printed. The latter end of the same year he published a sermon which he preached at

St. Bride's before the rest of the trustees for establishing a new colony in Georgia. His text was, *Bear ye one another's burthens, and so fulfil the law of Christ*; Galatians vi. 2.

In 1739 he printed a volume in 8vo. intituled, *Philosophical Experiments on Sea Water, Corn, Flesh, and other Substances*: this work, which contained many useful instructions for voyagers, was dedicated to the lords of the admiralty.

The same year he exhibited to the Royal Society an account of some farther experiments towards the discovery of medicines for dissolving the stone in the kidneys and bladder, and preserving meat in long voyages, for which he received the gold medal of Sir Godfrey Copley's donation.

The year following (1740) he published some account of experiments and observations on Mrs. Stephens's medicines for dissolving the stone, in which their dissolvent power is enquired into and demonstrated.

In 1741 he read before the Royal Society an account of an instrument which he invented, and called a ventilator, for conveying fresh air into mines, hospitals, prisons, and the close parts of ships: he had communicated it to his particular friends some months before; and it is very remarkable that a machine of the same kind, for the same purpose, was in the spring of the same year invented by one Martin Friewald, an officer in the service of the king of Sweden, called captain of mechanics, for which the king and senate granted him a privilege in October following, and ordered

ordered every ship of war in the service of that state to be furnished with one of them; a model also of this machine was sent into France, and all the ships in the French navy were also ordered to have a ventilator of the same sort.

It happened also that about the same time one Sutton, who kept a coffee-house in Aldersgate street, invented a ventilator of another construction, to draw off the foul air out of ships, by means of the cock-room fire; but poor Sutton had not interest enough to make mankind accept the benefit he offered them: he was however, at length, introduced to Dr. Mead, who soon perceiving that it was greatly preferable to any other method for sea service, drew up and presented a memorial to the Royal Society, in which the simplicity and excellence of it was demonstrated: he also caused a model of it to be made in copper at the expence of 200*l.* which he presented to the society, and which is now in their museum. After ten years solicitation, supported by the influence of Dr. Mead, Sutton obtained an order to construct his machine on board his majesty's ships of war, and his contrivance to preserve his fellow creatures from pestilential diseases was rewarded by a permission to put it in practice, an instance of attention to the public, and liberality to merit, which must reflect everlasting honour upon the great names who at that time presided over the affairs of this kingdom. M. Duhamel, a celebrated mathematician of France, and surveyor-general of the French marine, has shewn how

Sutton's machine may be applied with great advantage to other purposes; and the late ingenious Mr. Benjamin Robins, F. R. S. who was the best military mathematician of his time, gave his testimony in favour of the superiority of Sutton's contrivance.

The public, however, is not less indebted to the ingenuity and benevolence of Dr. Hales, whose ventilators came more easily into use for many purposes of the greatest importance to life, particularly for keeping corn sweet, by blowing through it fresh showers of air, a practice very soon adopted by France, a large granary having been made under the direction of Duhamel, for the preservation of corn in this manner, with a view to make it a general practice.

In the year 1743, Dr. Hales read before the Royal Society a description of a method of conveying liquors into the *abdomen* during the operation of tapping, and it was afterwards printed in their *Transactions*.

In 1745 he published some experiments and observations on tar-water, which he had been induced to make by the publication of a work called *Siris*, in which the late learned and most excellent Dr. Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne, had recommended tar-water as an universal medicine: on this occasion several letters passed between them on the subject, particularly with respect to the use of tar-water in the disease of the horned cattle.

In the same year he communicated to the public, by a letter to the editor of the *Gentleman's Magazine*, a description of a *back beaver*,

beaver, which will winnow and clean corn much sooner and better than can be done by the common method. He also, at the same time, and by the same channel, communicated to the public a cheap and easy way to preserve corn sweet in sacks, an invention of great benefit to farmers, especially to poor leasers, who want to keep small quantities of corn for some time, but have no proper granary or repository for that purpose. He also the same year took the same method to publish directions how to keep corn sweet in heaps without turning it, and to sweeten it when musty. He published a long paper, containing an account of several methods to preserve corn by ventilators, with a particular description of several sorts of ventilators, illustrated by a cut, so that the whole mechanism of them may be easily known, and the machine constructed by a common carpenter. He published also in the same volume, but without his name, a detection of the fallacious boasts concerning the efficacy of the liquid shell in dissolving the stone in the bladder: in the urine of persons who had taken the liquid shell, there appeared a white sediment, which the dispenser of the nostrum pretended to be the dissolved stone; but Dr. Hales demonstrated that it was no other than the lime of the burnt shell, which he precipitated with spirit of hartshorn without a stone, and which he also precipitated by putting a stone into some of the liquid shell, though the stone suffered not the least alteration.

In 1746 he communicated to the Royal Society a proposal for bring-

ing small passable stones soon, and with ease, out of the bladder; and this was also printed in their *Transactions*.

In the Gent. Mag. for July 1747, he published an account of a very considerable improvement of his back heaver, by which it became capable of clearing corn of the very small grain, seeds, blacks, smut-balls, &c. to such perfection as to make it fit for seed corn.

On the 21st of April 1748, he communicated to the Royal Society a proposal for checking, in some degree, the progress of fires, occasioned by the great fire which happened that year in Cornhill. And the substance of this proposal was printed in their *Transactions*.

In the same year he also communicated to the society two memoirs, which are printed in their *Transactions*, one on the great benefit of ventilators; and the other on some experiments in electricity.

In the year 1749 his ventilators were fixed in the Savoy prison; by order of the right honourable Henry Fox, Esq; then secretary at war, and now lord Holland; and the benefit was so great, that tho' 50 or 100 in a year often died of the gaol distemper before, yet from the year 1749, to the year 1752, inclusive, no more than 4 persons died, though in the year 1750 the number of prisoners was 240; and of those 4, one died of the small pox, and another of intemperance.

In the year 1750, he published some considerations on the causes of earthquakes, occasioned by the slight shocks felt that year in London. The substance of this work was also printed in the *Phil.*

Phil. Transf. The same year he exhibited an examination of the strength of several purging waters, especially of the water of *Jessop's well*, which is printed in the *Phil. Transf.*

He had now been several years honoured with the esteem and friendship of his royal highness Frederick prince of Wales, who frequently visited him at Teddington, from his neighbouring palace at Kew, and took a pleasure in surprising him in the midst of those curious researches into the various parts of nature which almost incessantly employed him. Upon the prince's death, which happened this year, and the settlement of the household of the princess dowager, he was, without his solicitation or even knowledge, appointed clerk of the closet, or almoner to her royal highness.

In 1751 he was chosen by the College of Physicians to preach the annual sermon called Crowne's lecture: Dr. William Crowne having left a legacy for a sermon to be annually preached on, *the wisdom and goodness of God displayed in the formation of man*. Dr. Hales's text was, *With the ancient is wisdom, and in length of days understanding*; Job xii. 12. This sermon, as usual, was published at the request of the college.

In the latter end of the year 1752, his ventilators, worked by a windmill, were fixed in Newgate, with branching trunks to 24 wards; and it appeared that the disproportion of those that die in the gaol before and after this establishment was as 7 to 16. He published also a farther account of their success, and some observations on the great danger arising

from foul air, exemplified by a narrative of several persons seized with the gaol fever by working in Newgate.

On the death of Sir Hans Sloane, which happened in the year 1753, he was elected a member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris in his room.

The same year he published in the *Gent. Mag.* some farther considerations about means to draw the foul air out of the sick rooms of occasional army hospitals, and private houses in towns.

He also published many other curious particulars relative to the use and success of ventilators.

The same year a description of a sea gage, which the doctor invented to measure unfathomable depths, was communicated to the public in the same miscellany: this paper was drawn up about the year 1732 or 33, by the doctor, for the late Colin Campbell, Esq; who employed the ingenious Mr. Hawksby to make the machine it describes, which was tried in various depths, and answered with great exactness; yet was at last lost near Bermuda.

On the 19th of Dec. 1754, he communicated to the Royal Society some experiments for keeping water and fish sweet with lime water, an account of which was published in the *Phil. Transf.* He also continued to enrich their memoirs with many useful articles from this time till his death, particularly a method of forwarding the distillation of fresh from salt water, by blowing showers of fresh air up through the latter during the operation.

In 1757 he communicated to the editor of the *Gent. Mag.* an

easy

easy method of purifying the air, and regulating its heat in melon frames, and hot green-houses, also farther improvements in his method of distilling sea-water.

His reputation and the interest of his family and friends might easily have procured him farther preferment; but of farther preferment he was not desirous; for being nominated by his late majesty to a canonry of Windsor, he engaged the princess to request his majesty to recall his nomination. That a man so devoted to philosophical studies and employments, and so conscientious in the discharge of his duty, should not desire any preferment which would reduce him to the dilemma either of neglecting his duty, or foregoing his amusement, is not strange; but that he would refuse an honourable and profitable appointment, for which no duty was to be done that would interrupt his habits of life, can scarce be imputed to his temperance and humility, without impeaching his benevolence; for if he had no will of any thing more for himself, a liberal mind would surely have been highly gratified by the distribution of so considerable a sum as a canonry of Windsor would have put into his power, in the reward of industry, the alleviation of distress, and the support of helpless indigence. He was, however, remarkable for social virtue and sweetness of temper; his life was not only blameless, but exemplary in a high degree;

he was happy in himself, and beneficial to others, as appears by this account of his attainments and pursuits: the constant serenity and cheerfulness of his mind, and the temperance and regularity of his life, concurred, with a good constitution, to preserve him in health and vigour to the uncommon age of fourscore and four years.

He died at Teddington on the 4th of January 1761, and was buried, pursuant to his own directions, under the tower of the parish church which he built at his own expence not long before his death.

Her royal highness the princess of Wales erected a monument to his memory in Westminster Abbey, with this inscription.

STEPHANO HALES

S. T. P.

Augusta GEORGII tertii

Regis optimi Mater P.

Quæ viventum

Ut sibi in sacris ministraret, eligit;

Mortuum prid. non. Jan. MDCC.LXI.

Obiit ætate quartum agentem annum

Hoc Marmore ornavit.

Memoirs of Sir Godfrey Kneller:—

From Mr. Walpole's anecdotes of painting.

SIR Godfrey Kneller was lessened by his own reputation, as he chose to make it subservient to his fortune*. Had he lived in a country where his merit

* The author of the Abregé says, that Kneller preferred portrait painting for this reason: "Painters of history, said he, make the dead live, and do not begin to live themselves till they are dead.—I paint the living, and they make me live."

had been rewarded according to the worth of his productions, instead of the number, he might have shone in the roll of the greatest masters; but he united the highest vanity with the most consummate negligence of character—at least, where he offered one picture to fame, he sacrificed twenty to lucre; and he met with customers of so little judgment, that they were fond of being painted by a man, who would gladly have disowned his works the moment they were paid for. Ten* sovereigns sat to him; not one of them discovered that he was fit for more than preserving their likenesses. We, however, who see king William, the Czar Peter, Marlborough, Newton, Dryden, Godolphin, Somers, the duchess of Grafton, lady Ranelagh, and so many ornaments of an illustrious age, transmitted to us by Kneller's pencil, must not regret that his talent was confined to portraits. Perhaps the treasure is greater than if he had decorated the chambers of Hampton-court with the wars of Æneas or the enchanted palace of Armida: and when one considers how seldom great masters are worthily employed, it is better to have real portraits, than Madonas without end. My opinion of what Sir Godfrey's genius could have produced, must not be judged by the historic picture of king William in the palace just mentioned; it is a lame and poor performance, but the original

sketch of it at Houghton is struck out with a spirit and fire equal to Rubens. The hero and the horse are in the heat of battle: in the large piece, it is the king riding in triumph, with his usual phlegm. Of all his works, Sir Godfrey was most proud of the converted Chinese at Windsor; but his portrait of Gibbons is superior to it: it has the freedom and nature of Vandyck, with the harmony of colouring peculiar to Andrea Sacchi; and no part of it is neglected. In general, even where he took pains, all the parts are effectually kept down, to throw the greater force into the head—a trick unworthy so great a master. His draperies too are so carelessly finished, that they resemble no silk or stuff the world ever saw. His airs of heads have extreme grace; the hair admirably disposed, and if the locks seem unnaturally elevated, it must be considered as an instance of the painter's art. He painted in an age when the women erected edifices of three stories on their heads. Had he represented such preposterous attire, in half a century his works would have been ridiculous. To lower their dress to a natural level, when the eye was accustomed to pyramids, would have shocked their prejudices and diminished the resemblance.—He took a middle way, and weighed out ornament to them of more natural materials. Still it must be owned, there is too great a

* Charles II. James II. and his queen; William and Mary, Anne, George I. Lewis XIV. Peter the Great, and the emperor Charles VI. For the last portrait, Leopold created Kneller Knight of the Roman empire; by Anne he was made gentleman of the privy chamber; and by the university of Oxford, a doctor.

fameness in his airs, and no imagination at all in his compositions. See but a head, it interests you—uncover the rest of the canvass, you wonder faces so expressive could be employed so insipidly. In truth, the age demanded nothing correct, nothing complete. Capable of tasting the power of Dryden's numbers, and the majesty of Kneller's heads, it overlooked doggrel and daubing. What pity that men of fortune are not blest with such a pen, or such a pencil! That a genius must write for a bookseller, or paint for an alderman!

Sir Godfrey Kneller was born at Lubec, about the year 1648. His grandfather had an estate near Hall, in Saxony; was surveyor general of the mines, and inspector of count Mansfeldt's revenues. By his wife, of the family of Crowsen, he had one son Zachary, educated at Leipzig, and for some time in the service of Gustavus Adolphus's widow. After her death, he removed to Lubec, married, professed architecture, and was chief surveyor to his native city. He left two sons, John Zachary, and Godfrey. The latter, who at first was designed for a military life, was sent to Leyden, where he applied to mathematics and fortification; but the predominance of nature determining him to painting, his father acquiesced and sent him to Amsterdam, where he studied under Boll, and had some instructions from Rembrandt. Virtue, nor any of his biographers, take notice of it, nor do I assert it, but I have heard that one of his masters was Francis Hals. It is certain that Kneller had no

fervility of a disciple, nor imitated any of them. Even in Italy, whither he went in 1672, he mimicked no peculiar stile; not even at Venice, where he resided most, and was esteemed and employed by some of the first families, and where he drew Cardinal Bassadonna. If he caught any thing, it was instructions, not hints. If I see the least resemblance in his works to any other master, it is in some of his earliest works in England, and those his best, to Tintoret. A portrait at Houghton of Joseph Carreras, a poet, and Chaplain to Catherine of Lisbon, has the force and simplicity of that master, without owing part of its merit to Tintoret's universal black drapery, to his own, afterwards, neglected draperies, or his master Rembrandt's unnatural Chiaro Scuro. Latterly Sir Godfrey was thought to give into the manner of Rubens; I see it no where but in the sketch of king William's equestrian figure, evidently imitated from Rubens's design of the cieling for the Banqueting-house, which, as I have said, in the life of that painter, was in Kneller's possession. The latter had no more of Rubens's rich colouring than of Vandyck's delicacy in habits; but he had more beauty than the latter, more dignity than Sir Peter Lely. The latter felt his capacity in a memorable instance; Kneller and his brother came to England in 1674, without intending to reside here, but to return through France to Venice. They were recommended to Mr. Banks, a Hamburgh merchant, and Godfrey drew him and his family. The pictures pleased.

pleased. Mr. Vernon, secretary to the Duke of Monmouth, saw them, and sat to the new painter, and obtained his master's picture by the same hand. The duke was so charmed, that he engaged the king his father to sit to Kneller, at the time the duke of York had been promised the King's picture by Lely. Charles, unwilling to have double trouble, proposed that both the artists should draw him at the same time. Lely, as an established master, chose the light he liked: the stranger was to draw the picture as he could; and performed it with such facility and expedition, that his piece was in a manner finished, when Lely's was only dead-coloured. The novelty pleased—yet Lely deserved most honour, for he did justice to his new competitor; confessed his abilities and the likeness. This success fixed Kneller here. The series of his portraits prove the continuance of his reputation.

Charles II. sent him to Paris to draw Louis XIV. but died in his absence. The successor was equally favourable to him, and was sitting for his picture for secretary Pepys, when he received the news that the prince of Orange was landed.

King William distinguished Kneller still more; for that prince he painted the beauties at Hampton-court, and was knighted by him in 1692, with the additional present of a gold medal and chain, weighing 300 l.* and for him Sir Godfrey drew the portrait of the

Czar; as for Queen Anne, he painted the king of Spain, afterwards Charles VI. so poor a performance that one would think he felt the fall from Peter to Charles. His works in the gallery of* admirals were done in the same reign, and several of them worthy so noble a memorial. The Kit-cat club, generally mentioned as a set of wits, in reality the patriots that saved Britain, were Kneller's last works in that reign, and his last public work. He lived to draw George I. was made a baronet by him, and continued to paint during the greater part of his reign; but in 1722 Sir Godfrey was seized with a violent fever, from the immediate danger of which he was rescued by Dr. Mead. The humour, however, fell on his left arm; and it was opened. He remained in a languishing condition, and died Oct. 27, 1723. His body lay in state, and was buried at Witton, but a monument was erected in Westminster Abbey † where his friend Mr. Pope, as if to gratify an extravagant vanity dead, which he had ridiculed living, bestowed on him a translation of Raphael's epitaph—as high a compliment as even poetry could be allowed to pay to the original; a silly hyperbole when applied to the modern. This was not the only instance in which the poet incensed the painter. Sir Godfrey had drawn for him the statues of Apollo, Venus, and Hercules; Pope paid for them with these lines:

* Seven of those heads are by Kneller, the rest by Dahl.

† His monument, executed by Ryfbrack, was directed by himself; he left 300 l. for it.

What God, what genius did the pencil
move,

When Kneller painted these!

'Twas friendship, warm as Phœbus,
kind as love,

And strong as Hercules.

He was in the right to suppress them—what idea does muscular friendship convey? It was not the same warmth of friendship that made Pope put Kneller's vanity to the strongest trial imaginable. The former laid a wager that there was no flattery so gross but his friend would swallow. To prove it, Pope said to him as he was painting, "Sir Godfrey, I believe if God Almighty had had your assistance, the world would have been formed more perfect." "Fore God, Sir, replied Kneller, I believe so." This impious answer was not extraordinary in the latter.—His conversation on religion was extremely free.—His paraphrase on a particular text of scripture, singular. "In my father's house are many mansions;" which Sir Godfrey interpreted thus: "At the day of judgment, said he, God will examine mankind on their different professions: to one he will say, Of what sect was you? I was a papist—go you there. What was you? a Protestant—go you there.—And you? a Turk—go you there.—And you, Sir Godfrey?—I was of no sect.—Then God will say, Sir Godfrey, chuse your place." His wit was ready; his bon mots deservedly admired. In Great Queen-street he lived next door to Dr. Ratcliffe; Kneller was fond of flowers, and had a fine collection. As there was a great intimacy between him and the physician, he permitted the latter to have a door into his garden; but Ratcliffe's

servants gathering and destroying the flowers, Kneller sent him word he must shut up the door.—Ratcliffe replied peevishly, "Tell him he may do any thing with it but paint it."—"And I," answered Sir Godfrey, "can take any thing from him but physic."

He married Susannah Cawley, daughter of the minister of Henley upon Thames. She out-lived him, and was buried at Henley, where are monuments for her and her father. Before his marriage, Sir Godfrey had an intrigue with a Quaker's wife, whom he purchased of her husband, and had a daughter, whose portrait he drew like St. Agnes with a lamb; there is a print of it by Smith. Kneller had amassed a great fortune, though he lived magnificently, and lost 20,000*l.* in the South-Sea; yet he had an estate of near 2,000*l.* a year left. Part he bequeathed to his wife, and entailed the rest on Godfrey Huckle, his daughter's son, with orders that he should assume the name of Kneller. To three nieces at Ham-burgh, the children of his brother, he left legacies; and an annuity of 100*l.* a year to Bing, an old servant, who, with his brother, had been his assistants. Of these he had many, as may be concluded from the quantity of his works, and the badness of so many. His chief performers were, Pieter, Vander, Roer, and Bakker—sometimes he employed Baptist and Vergazon. His prices were fifteen guineas for a head, twenty if with one hand, thirty for a half, and sixty for a whole length.

Kneller frequently drew his own portrait; my father had one, a head when young, and a small

one of the same age, very masterly; it is now mine. It was engraved by Becket. Another in a wig; by Smith. A half-length sent to the Tuscan gallery. A half-length in a brocaded waistcoat with his gold chain; there is a mezzotinto of it adjoining to the Kit-cat-heads. Another head with a cap;—a half-length presented to the gallery at Oxford, and a double piece of himself and his wife. Great numbers of his works have been engraved, particularly by Smith, who has done more than justice to them; the draperies are preferable to the originals. The first print taken from his works was by White, of Charles II. He had an historic piece of his own painting before he went to Italy, Tobit and the angel. At his seat at Witton were many of his own works, sold some years after his death. He intended that Sir James Thornhill should paint the stair-case there, but hearing that Sir Isaac Newton was sitting to Thornhill, Kneller was offended, said, No portrait-painter should paint his house, and employed Laguerre.

Pope was not the only bard that soothed this painter's vain-glory. The most beautiful of Addison's poetic works was addressed to him: the singular happiness of the allusions, and applications of fabulous theology to the princes drawn by Kneller, is very remarkable:

Great Pan, who wont to chafe the fair,
And love the spreading oak, was there.

For Charles II.—and for James,
Old Saturn too with upcast eyes
Beheld his abdicated skies.

And the rest on William and Mary, Anne, and George I. are all stamped with the most just resemblance.

Account of the life of Mr. Samuel Boyse.

MR. Samuel Boyse was the son of the reverend Mr. Joseph Boyse, a dissenting minister of great eminence in Dublin, much respected, not only for learning and abilities, but his extensive humanity and undissembled piety. During his ministerial charge at Dublin, he published many sermons, which compose several folio volumes, a few poems, and other tracts; but what chiefly distinguished him as a writer, was the controversy he carried on with Dr. King, archbishop of Dublin, and author of the *Origin of Evil*, concerning the office of a scriptural bishop. This controverted point was managed on both sides with great force of argument and calmness of temper. The bishop asserted that the episcopal right of jurisdiction had its foundation in the New Testament: Mr. Boyse, consistent with his principles, denied that any ecclesiastical superiority appeared there, with the greatest candour and good manners. Samuel was born in 1708, and received the rudiments of his education in a private school in Dublin. When he was but eighteen years old, his father, who probably intended him for the ministry, sent him to the university of Glasgow, that he might finish his education there. He had not been a year at the university, when he fell in love with one Miss Atchen-son, the daughter of a tradesman in that city, and was imprudent enough to interrupt his education, by marrying her, before he had entered into his 20th year. The natural extravagance of his temper soon exposed him to want, and as he had

had now the additional charge of a wife, his reduced circumstances obliged him to quit the university, and go over with his wife (who also carried a sister with her) to Dublin; where they relied on the old gentleman for support. Young Boyse was of all men the furthest removed from a gentleman; he had no graces of person, and fewer still of conversation. Never were three people of more libertine characters than young Boyse, his wife, and sister-in-law; yet the two ladies wore such a mask of decency before the old gentleman, that his fondness was never abated. The estate his father possessed in Yorkshire was sold to discharge his debts; and when the old man lay in his last sickness, he was entirely supported by presents from his congregation, and buried at their expence. We have no further account of Mr. Boyse, till we find him soon after his father's death at Edinburgh. At this place his poetical genius raised him many friends, and some patrons of very great eminence. He published a volume of poems, 1731, to which is subjoined *the Tablature of Cebes*, and *A letter upon liberty*, inserted in the *Dublin journal* 1726; and by these he obtained a very great reputation. They are addressed to the countess of Eglington. This amiable lady was patroness of all men of wit, and very much distinguished Mr. Boyse, while he resided in that country. Upon the death of the viscountess Stormont, Mr. Boyse, wrote an elegy, which was very much applauded by her ladyship's relations. This elegy he intitled, *The tears of the muses*, as the deceased lady was a woman of the most refined taste in the sciences, and

a great admirer of poetry. The lord Stormont was so much pleased with this mark of esteem paid to the memory of his lady, that he ordered a very handsome present to be given to Mr. Boyse by his attorney at Edinburgh. The notice which lady Eglington and the lord Stormont took of our poet, recommended him likewise to the patronage of the duchess of Gordon, who was so solicitous to raise him above necessity, that she employed her interest in procuring the promise of a place for him. She gave him a letter, which he was next day to deliver to one of the commissioners of the customs at Edinburgh. It happened that he was then some miles distant from the city, and the morning on which he was to have rode to town with her grace's letter of recommendation proved to be rainy: this slender circumstance was enough to discourage Boyse, who never looked beyond the present moment; he declined going to town on account of the rainy weather, and while he let slip the opportunity, the place was bestowed upon another, which the commissioner declared he kept for some time vacant, in expectation of seeing a person recommended by the duchess of Gordon. Boyse at last, having defeated all the kind intentions of his patrons towards him, fell into contempt and poverty, which obliged him to quit Edinburgh. He communicated his design of going to London to the duchess of Gordon, who having still a very high opinion of his poetical abilities, gave him a letter of recommendation to Mr. Pope, and obtained another for him to Sir Peter King, the lord chancellor of England. Lord

Stormont recommended him to the solicitor-general his brother, and many other persons of the first fashion. Upon receiving these letters, he, with great caution, quitted Edinburgh, regretted by none but his creditors. Upon his arrival in London, he went to Twickenham, in order to deliver the duchess of Gordon's letter to Mr. Pope; but that gentleman not being at home, Mr. Boyse never gave himself the trouble to repeat his visit. He wrote poems, but those, though excellent in their kind, were lost to the world, by being introduced with no advantage. He had so strong a propensity to grovelling, that his acquaintance were generally of such a cast as could be of no service to him; and those in higher life he addressed by letters, not having sufficient confidence or politeness to converse familiarly with them. Thus unfit to support himself in the world, he was exposed to variety of distresses, from which he could invent no means of extricating himself, but by writing mendicant letters. It will appear amazing, but impartiality obliges us to relate it, that this man, of so abject a spirit, was voluptuous and luxurious; he had no taste for any thing elegant, and yet was to the last degree expensive. Can it be believed, that often when he had received but a guinea, in consequence of a supplicating letter, he would go into a tavern, order a supper to be prepared, drink of the richest wines, and spend all the money that had just been given him in charity, without having any one to participate the regale with him, and while his wife and child were starving at home?

It was about the year 1740, that Mr. Boyse, reduced to the last extremity of human wretchedness, had not a shirt, a coat, or any kind of apparel to put on; the sheets in which he lay were carried to the pawnbroker's, and he was obliged to be confined to his bed, with no other covering than a blanket. He had little support but what he got by writing letters to his friends in the most abject style, but was perhaps ashamed to let this instance of his distress be known, which probably was the occasion of his remaining six weeks in that situation. During this time he had some employment in writing verses for the magazines: and whoever had seen him in his study, must have thought the object singular enough; he sat up in bed with the blanket wrapt about him, through which he had cut a hole large enough to admit his arm, and placing the paper upon his knee, scribbled in the best manner he could the verses he was obliged to make; whatever he got by those, or any other of his begging letters, was but just sufficient for the preservation of life. And perhaps he would have remained much longer in this distressful state, had not a compassionate gentleman, upon hearing this circumstance related, ordered his cloaths to be taken out of pawn, and enabled him to appear again abroad. This six weeks penance one would have imagined sufficient to deter him for the future, from suffering himself to be exposed to such distresses; but by a long habit of want it grew familiar to him, and as he had less delicacy than other men, he was perhaps less affected with this exterior meanness. For the

the future, whenever his distresses so pressed, as to induce him to dispose of his shirt, he fell upon an artificial method of supplying one. He cut some white paper in slips, which he tied round his wrists, and in the same manner supplied his neck. In this plight he frequently appeared abroad with the additional inconvenience of the want of breeches.

About 1745 Mr. Boyse's wife died. He was then at Reading, and pretended much concern when he heard of her death. It was an affectation in Mr. Boyse to appear very fond of a little lap-dog, which he always carried about with him in his arms, imagining it gave him the air of a man of taste. Boyse, whose circumstances were then too mean to put himself in mourning, was yet resolved that some part of his family should. He stepp'd into a little shop, purchased half a yard of black ribbon, which he fixed round his dog's neck by way of mourning for the loss of its mistress. As he had no spirit to keep good company, so he retired to some obscure ale-house, and regaled himself with hot two-penny, which, though he drank to excess, yet he had never more than a pennyworth of it at a time. At Reading his business was to compile a Review of the most material transactions at home and abroad, during the last war: in which he has included a short account of the late rebellion. Upon his return from Reading, his behaviour was more decent than it had ever been before, and there were some hopes that a reformation, though late, would be wrought upon him. He was em-

ployed by a bookseller to translate *Fenelon on the existence of God*, during which time he married a second wife, a woman in low circumstances, but well enough adapted to his taste. He began now to live with more regard to his character, and supported a better appearance than usual; but while his circumstances were mending, and his irregular appetites losing ground, his health visibly declined: he had the satisfaction, while in this lingering illness, to observe a poem of his, intitled *The Deity*, recommended by two eminent writers, the ingenious Mr. Fielding, and the reverend Mr. James Hervey, author of *The Meditations*. The former, in the beginning of his humorous history of *Tom Jones*, calls it an excellent poem. Mr. Hervey styles it a pious and instructive piece; and that worthy gentleman, upon hearing that the author was in necessitous circumstances, deposited two guineas in the hands of a trusty person to be given him, whenever his occasions should press. The poem indeed abounds with shining lines and elevated sentiments on the several attributes of the Supreme Being; but then it is without a plan, or any connexion of parts, for it may be read either backwards or forwards, as the reader pleases.

Mr. Boyse's mind was often religiously disposed; he frequently talked upon that subject, and probably suffered a great deal from the remorse of his conscience. The early impressions of his good education were never entirely obliterated, and his whole life was a continued struggle between his will and reason, as he was always vio-

lating

lating his duty to the one, while he fell under the subjection of the other. It was in consequence of this war in his mind, that he wrote a beautiful poem called *The Recantation*. In May 1749, he died in obscure lodgings near Shoe-lane; but in sentiments, there is the greatest reason to believe, very different from those in which he had spent the greatest part of his life. An old acquaintance of his endeavoured to collect money to defray the expences of his funeral, so that the scandal of being buried by the parish might be avoided, but in vain: the remains of this son of the muses were, with very little ceremony, hurried away by the parish officers. Never was a life spent with less grace than that of Mr. Boyle, and never were such distinguished abilities given to less purpose. His genius was not confined to poetry only, he had a taste for painting, music, and heraldry, with the latter of which he was very well acquainted. His poetical pieces, if collected, would make six moderate volumes. Many of them are scattered in *The Gentleman's Magazine*, marked with the letter Y. and Alceus. Two volumes were published in London. An ode of his in the manner of Spenser, entitled *The Olive*, was addressed to Sir Robert Walpole, which procured him a present of ten guineas. He translated a poem from the High Dutch of Van Haren, in praise of peace, upon the conclusion of that made at Aix la Chapelle; but the poem which procured him the greatest reputation was, that upon the attributes of the Deity. He was employed by Mr. Ogle to translate some of Chaucer's

tales into modern English, which he performed with great spirit, and received at the rate of three pence a line for his trouble. Mr. Ogle published a complete edition of that old poet's *Canterbury Tales modernized*: and Mr. Boyse's name is put to such tales as were done by him. In 1743 Mr. Boyse published, without his name, an ode on the battle of Dettingen, entitled *Albion's Triumph*.

Memoirs of the Rev. Mr. Charles Churchill.

THIS gentleman was the son of the Rev. Mr. Charles Churchill, curate, and lecturer of St. John's in Westminster: he was educated in Westminster-school, and received some applause for his abilities from his tutors in that famous seminary. His capacity however was greater than his application, so that he received the character of a boy who could do good if he would. As the slightest accounts of persons so noted are agreeable, it may not be amiss to observe, that having one day got an exercise to make, and, from idleness or inattention, having failed to bring it at the time appointed, his master thought proper to chastise him with some severity, and even reproach his stupidity: what the fear of stripes could not effect, the fear of shame soon produced, and he brought his exercise the next day finished in such a manner, that he received the public thanks of all the masters.

Still, however, it is to be supposed that his progress in the learned languages was but slow; nor

or is it to be wondered at, if we consider how difficult it was for a strong imagination, such as he was possessed of, to conform and walk tamely forward in the trammels of school education: minds like his are ever starting aside after new pursuits, desirous of embracing a multiplicity of amusing objects, eager to come at the end without the painful investigation of the means; and, if we may borrow a term from the mercantile world, a genius like his disdaining the painful assiduity of earning knowledge by retail, aimed at being a wholesale dealer in the treasures of literature. This much was necessary to premise, in order to palliate his being refused admittance into the university of Oxford, to which he was sent by his father, for want of proper skill in the learned languages. He has often mentioned his repulse upon that occasion; but whether his justification of himself is to be admitted, we will not undertake to determine. Certain it is, that both he and his companions have often asserted, that he could have answered the college examination had he thought proper; but he so much despised the trifling questions that were put to him, that instead of making the proper replies, he only launched out in satirical reflexions upon the abilities of the gentleman whose office it was to judge of his.

Be this as it will, Mr. Churchill was rejected from Oxford, and probably this might have given occasion to the frequent invectives we find in his works against that most respectable university. Upon his returning from Oxford, he again applied himself to his studies at Westminster-school; and there, at

the age of seventeen, contracted an intimacy with the lady to whom he was married, and who still survives him. This was one of those imprudent matches which generally begin in passion and end in disgust. However, the beginning of this young couple's regard for each other were mutual and sincere, and so continued for several years after. At the usual age for going into orders, Mr. Churchill was ordained by the late bishop of London, notwithstanding he had taken no degree, nor studied in either of our universities; and the first place he had in the church, was a small curacy of thirty pounds a year in Wales. To this remote part of the kingdom he brought his wife; they took a little house, and he went through the duties of his station with chearfulness and assiduity. Happy had it been for him in this life, perhaps more happy in that to which he has been called, if he had still continued here in piety, simplicity, and peace. His parishioners all loved and esteemed him; his sermons, though rather raised above the level of his audience, were however commended and followed. In order to eke out his scanty finances, he entered into a branch of trade which he thought might end in riches, but which involved him in debts that pressed him for some years after: this was no other than keeping a cyder-cellar, and dealing in this liquor through that part of the country. A poet is but ill qualified for merchandise, where small gains are to be patiently expected and carefully accumulated. He had neither patience for the one, nor œconomy for the other: and a sort of rural bankruptcy was the consequence of his attempt.

Upon

Upon leaving Wales, he came up to London, and his father soon after dying, he stepped into the church in which he had officiated. In order to improve his scanty finances, which in this situation did not produce full an hundred pounds yearly, he undertook to teach young ladies, to read and write English, and was employed for this purpose in the boarding school of Mrs. Dennis, where he behaved with that decency and piety which became his profession: nor should we here omit paying proper deference to a mode of female education which seems new amongst us. While in other schools our young misses are taught the arts of personal allurements only, this sensible governess pays the strictest attention to the minds of her young pupils, and endeavours to fit them for the domestic duties of life, with as much assiduity as they are elsewhere formed to levity and splendor.

While Mr. Churchill was in this situation, his method of living bearing no proportion to his income, several debts were contracted in the city, which he was not in a capacity of paying; and a gaol, the continual terror of indigent genius, seemed now ready to close upon his miseries. From this wretched state of uneasiness he was relieved by the benevolence of Mr. Loyd, father to the poet of that name, who paid his debts, or at least satisfied his creditors.

In the mean time, while Mr. Loyd, the father, was thus relieving Churchill by his bounty, Mr. Loyd the son began to excite him by his example. *The Actor*, a poetical epistle, written by this gentleman, and addressed to Mr. Bonnel Thornton, was read and relish-

ed by all the judges of poetical merit, and gave the author a distinguished place among the writers of his age. Mr. Churchill soon undertook to write the *Rosciad*, a work though upon a more confined plan yet more adapted to excite public curiosity. It first came out without the name of the author; but the justness of its remarks, and particularly the severity of the satire, soon excited public curiosity. Though he never disowned his having written this piece, and even openly gloried in it; yet the public, unwilling to give so much merit to one alone, ascribed it to a combination of wits: nor were Messrs. Loyd, Thornton, or Coleman less unnamed upon this occasion. This misplaced praise soon induced Mr. Churchill to throw off the mask, and the second edition appeared with his name at length; and now the fame, which before was diffused upon many objects, became centered to a point. As the *Rosciad* was the first of this poet's performances so many are of opinion that it is his best; and indeed I am inclined to concur in the same sentiment. In it we find a very close and minute discussion of the particular merit of each performer; their defects pointed out with candour, and their merits praised without adulation. This poem, however, seems to be one of those few works which are injured by succeeding editions; when he became popular, his judgment began to grow drunk with applause, and we find, in the latter editions men blamed whose merit is incontestible, and others praised that were at that time in no degree of esteem with the judicious, and whom, at present, even the most are beginning to forsake.

His next performance was his *Apology to the Critical Reviewers*: his work is not without its peculiar merit; and as it was written against a set of critics whom the world was willing enough to blame, he public read it with their usual indulgence. In this performance he shewed a peculiar happiness of throwing his thoughts, if we may so express it, into poetical paragraphs; so that the sentence swells to the break or conclusion, as we find in prose.

His fame being greatly extended by these productions, his improvement in morals did not seem by any means to correspond; but while his writings amused the town, his actions in some measure disgusted it. He now quitted his wife, with whom he had cohabited for many years, and resigning his gown, and all clerical functions, commenced a complete *man of the town*, got drunk, frequented stews, and giddy with false praise, thought his talents a sufficient atonement for all his follies. Some people have been unkind enough to say, that Mrs. Churchill gave the first just cause of separation; but nothing can be more false than this rumour; and we can assure the public, that her conduct in private life, and among her acquaintances, was ever irreproachable.

In some measure to palliate the absurdities of his conduct, he now undertook a poem called *Night*, written upon a general subject indeed, but upon false principles; namely, that whatever our follies are, we should never undertake to conceal them. This, and Mr. Churchill's other poems, being shewn to Mr. Johnson, and his opinion being asked concerning them,

he allowed them but little merit; which being told to the author, he resolved to requite this private opinion with a public one. In his next poem therefore of the *Ghost*, he has drawn this gentleman under the character of Pomposo; and those who disliked Mr. Johnson, allowed it to have merit. But our poet is now dead, and justice may be heard without the imputation of envy: though we entertain no small opinion of Mr. Churchill's abilities, yet they are neither of a size nor correctness to compare with those of the author of the *Rambler*; a work which has, in some places, enlarged the circle of moral enquiry, and fixed more precise landmarks to guide philosophy in the investigation of truth. Mr. Johnson's only reply to Mr. Churchill's abuse was, that he thought him a shallow fellow in the beginning, and that he could say nothing worse of him still.

The poems of *Night*, and of the *Ghost*, had not the rapid sale the author expected; but his *Prophecy of Famine* soon made ample amends for the late paroxysm in his fame. *Night* was written upon a general subject, and for that reason no way alluring; the *Ghost* was written in eight syllable verse, in which kind of measure he was not very successful; but the *Prophecy of Famine* had all those circumstances of time, place, and party to recommend it, that the author could desire; or, let us use the words of Mr. Wilkes, who said, before its publication, that he was sure it must take, as it was at once personal, poetical, and political. It had accordingly a rapid and an extensive sale; and it was often asserted by his admirers, that Mr. Churchill was a better poet

poet than Mr. Pope. This exaggerated adulation, as it had before corrupted his morals, now began to impair his mind; several succeeding pieces were published, which being written without effort, are read without pleasure. His *Gotham*, *Independence*, *the Times*, seem merely to be written by a man who desired to avail himself of the avidity of the public curiosity in his favour, and are rather aimed at the pockets than the hearts of his readers.

How shall I trace this thoughtless man through the latter part of his conduct; in which, leaving all the milder forms of life, he became entirely guided by his native turbulence of temper, and permitted his mind to harass his body thro' all the various modes of debauchery? His seducing a young lady, and afterwards living with her in shameless adultery; his beating a man formerly his friend, without any previous provocation, are well known. Yet let us not be severe in judging; happy were it for him, perhaps, if ours were the only tribunal at which he was to plead for those irregularities, which his mental powers rendered but more culpable.

Memoirs of Mr. William Hogarth.

THE ingenious man who makes the subject of this slight memoir, was one of those whose life affords little variety to the historian, and whose chief history lies in that of his own productions. But not to be entirely silent upon a subject which affords more to raise than gratify curiosity, we may observe, that Mr. Hogarth was born

in London, in the parish of St. Bartholomew; to which he was afterwards, as far as lay in his power, a benefactor.

His father, being one of the lower orders of tradesmen, had no higher views for his son than binding him apprentice to an engraver of pewter pots, which, it must be owned, is, of all species of the painting art, the lowest. In this humble situation Hogarth wrought through his apprenticeship, and seemed, through the whole of his time, to have no higher views than those of his contemptible employment.

Upon leaving his apprenticeship he resolved upon higher aims, and pursued every method of improving himself in the art of drawing, of which his former master had given him but a very rude conception. The ambition of the poor is ever productive of distress; so it was with Hogarth, who, while he was furnishing materials for his subsequent excellence, felt all that contempt and indigence could produce. I have heard it from an intimate friend of his, that being one day arrested for so trifling a sum as twenty shillings, and being bailed by one of his friends, in order to be revenged of the woman who arrested him (for it was his landlady) he drew her picture as ugly as possible, or, as painters express it, in *Caricatura*; and in that single figure gave marks of the dawn of superior genius.

How long he continued in this state of indigence and obscurity, I cannot learn; but the first time he distinguished himself as a painter, was in the *Figure of the Wandsworth Assembly*. These are drawn from the life, and without any circumstances

circumstances of his burlesque manner. The faces are said to be extremely like, and the colouring is rather better than in some of his best subsequent pieces. But we must observe in general of this excellent painter, that his colouring is dry and displeasing, and that he could never get rid of the appellation of a *mannerist*, which was given him early in life. His next piece was probably that excellent picture of the *Pool of Bethesda*, which he presented to St. Bartholomew's hospital, in which parish, as we have already said, he was born.

We have hitherto only seen him in grave history paintings; a walk in which he has many competitors; but he soon launched out into an unbeaten track, in which he excelled all that ever came before, or have since succeeded him. His being first employed to draw designs for a new edition of *Hudibras*, was the inlet to his future excellence in the burlesque; we mean in his life pictures, for such we will venture to call them. It is unjust to give these the character either of burlesque or grotesque pieces, since both the one and the other convey to us a departure from nature, to which Hogarth almost always strictly adhered. The work of this kind, which first appeared, was his *Harlot's Progress*. The ingenious Abbé du Bos has often complained, that no history painter of his time went through a series of actions, and thus, like an historian, painted the successive fortunes of an hero from the cradle to the grave. What du Bos wished to see done, Hogarth performed. He launches out his young adventurer a simple girl upon the town, and conducts her through

all the vicissitudes of wretchedness to a premature death. This was painting to the reason and to the heart: none had ever before made the art subservient to the purposes of morality and instruction; a book like this is fitted to every soil and every observer, and he that runs may read.

The *Rake's Progress* succeeded the former, which, though not equal to it, came short only of that single excellence, in which no other could come near him that way. His great excellence consisted in what we may term the furniture of his pieces; for as in sublime subjects, and history pieces, the fewness of little circumstances capable of taking the spectator's attention from the principal figures, is reckoned a merit; so in life-painting, a great variety of those little domestic images gives the whole a greater degree of force and resemblance. Thus in the *Harlot's Progress* we are not displeased with James Dalton's wig-box on the bed-tester of her lodgings in Drury-lane; particularly too if it be remembered, that this James Dalton was a noted highwayman of that time. In the pieces of *Marriage à la mode*, what can be more finely or satirically conceived, than his introducing a gouty Lord, who carries his pride even into his infirmities, and has his very crutches marked with a coronet.

But a comment or panegyric on picture is of all subjects the most displeasing; and yet the life before us offers little else. We may indeed, in the manner of biographers, observe, that he travelled to Paris for improvement; but scarce any circumstance remains by which he was distinguished in this journey from the rest of mankind who

go thither without design, and return without remark. Perhaps his general character of the French may be thought worth remembering; which was, that their houses were *gilt and b——t*.

About the year 1750 he published his *Analysis of Beauty*, which, though it was strongly opposed, yet was replete with those strokes which ever characterise the works of genius. In this performance he shews, by a variety of examples, that round swelling figures are most pleasing to the eye; and the truth of this has of late been further confirmed by an ingenious writer on the same subject.

Little else remains of the circumstances of this admirable man's life, except his late contest with Mr. Churchill: the circumstances of this are too recent in every memory to be repeated. It is well known that both met at Westminster-Hall; Hogarth, to catch a ridiculous likeness of the poet, and Churchill, to furnish a natural description of the painter. Hogarth's picture of Churchill was but little esteemed, and Churchill's letter to Hogarth has died with the subject; some pretend, however, to say, that it broke the latter's heart; but this we can, from good authority, say is not true; indeed, the report falls of itself; for we may as well say that Hogarth's pencil was as efficacious as the poet's pen, since neither long survived the contest.

An account of James Woodhouse, the poetical shoemaker, whose works have been lately published.

THIS extraordinary person is about 28 years of age,
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and has a wife and several small children, whom he endeavours to maintain by great application to his business, and by teaching children to read and write, which is all the learning he ever received himself, being taken from school at seven years old.

He lives at the village of Rowley, near Hale's Owen, about seven miles from Birmingham in Staffordshire, and two miles from an estate of the late Mr. William Shenstone, called the Leafowes.

After he was taken from school he had no means of gratifying his insatiable thirst after reading and knowledge, but by procuring the magazines with such little perquisites as he could pick up, till about five years ago, when an accident brought him acquainted with Mr. Shenstone.

That gentleman, who, by improving nature with a true taste of her beauties, has rendered the Leafowes the admiration of all who have seen the place, used to suffer his delightful walks to be open to every body, till the mischief that was done by the thoughtless, or the malicious, obliged him to exclude all but such as should have his special permission on a proper application for that purpose. Woodhouse, who was more a loser by this prohibition than almost any other person whom it excluded, applied to Mr. Shenstone for leave to indulge his imagination among the scenes which had so often delighted him before, by a copy of verse. This immediately procured him the liberty he solicited, and introduced him to Mr. Shenstone himself. The poem appeared to be so extraordinary for a person in so obscure a station, wh

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had been taken from a school at seven years old, and had since read nothing but magazines, that he offered him the use not only of his garden, but his library.

Woodhouse, however, did not suffer his love of poetry, or his desire of knowledge, to intrude upon the duties of his station: as his work employed only his hands, and left his mind at liberty, he used to place a pen and ink at his side, while the last was in his lap, and when he had made a couplet he wrote it down on his knee; his seasons for reading he borrowed not from those which others of his rank usually devote to tipling, or skittles, but from the hours that would otherwise have been lost in sleep.

The versification of this extraordinary writer is remarkably harmonious, his language is pure, his images poetical, and his sentiments uncommonly tender and elegant.

His poem to Mr. Shenstone was written when he was about three and twenty; and though in the character of a suitor, and with a proper sense of the inferiority of his station, yet there is a consciousness of that equality of nature, which petitioners and dedicators too often prostitute or forget.

After an address to Mr. Shenstone, in which he encourages himself by considering the general kindness of his character, he says;

Shall he, benevolent as wife, disdain
The muse's suitor, though a scandal'd swain?

Tho' no auspicious rent-rolls grace my line,
I boast the same original divine:

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Tho' niggard fate with-held her sordid ore,

Yet lib'ral nature gave her better store!
Whose influence early did my mind inspire

To read her works, and praise her mighty Sire.

A copy of this poem, and of another addressed to the same gentleman, were sent by Mr. Shenstone's direction, with some manuscript poems of his own, to a friend in London; this friend shewed them to some of his acquaintance, and a small collection was made for the author, which produced an ode on Benevolence; by this ode he appears to have profited by Mr. Shenstone's library; for he talks of Palladian skill, Sappho's art, Phidias chisel, and the pencil of Titian. But his force of thought and skill in poetical expression, appear to greater advantage in a poem of 50 stanzas, each consisting of 4 verses, intitled Spring: this contains a striking picture of the infelicities of his situation, and the keenness and delicacy of his sensations.

After regretting the vacant cheerfulness of his earlier days, before domestic connexions condemned him to incessant labour, and absorbed him in care and solicitude, he exhibits this picture of the pain and pleasure that are mingled in his conjugal and paternal character.

But now domestic cares employ
And busy ev'ry sense,
Nor leave one hour of grief or joy,
But's furnish'd out from thence;

Save what my little babes afford,
Whom I behold with glee,
When smiling at my humble board,
Or prattling on my knee.

Not that my Daphne's charms are
flown,

These still new pleasures bring ;
'Tis these inspire content alone ;
'Tis all I've left of Spring.

There is something extremely pathetic in the last verse ; and the first of the next stanza, where he mentions his wife as endeared to him by her sensibility and distress, is still more striking.

The dew-drop sparkling in her eye,
The lilly on her breast,
The rose-buds on her lips supply
My rich, my sweet repast.

He that can feel the following will need no assistance to discover their beauty, and to him, who cannot, no assistance will be effectual.

I wish not, dear connubial state,
To break thy filken bands ;
I only blame relentless fate
That every hour demands.

Nor mourn I much my task austere,
Which endless wants impose ;
But oh ! it wounds my soul to hear
My Daphne's melting woes :

For oft she sighs, and oft she weeps,
And hangs her pensive head ;
While blood her furrow'd finger steeps,
And stains the passing thread.

When orient hills the sun behold,
Our labours are begun ;
And when he streaks the west with gold,
The task is still undone.

This poem, with those before-mentioned, and some others, are published in one volume in quarto, at the price of 3s. for the author's benefit ; and if any of our readers shall be excited by this extract, at

once to reward ingenuity, and assist industry to struggle with distress, the author of these extracts will participate with them in the highest and purest of all pleasures, that of communicating happiness to an ingenious and worthy mind.

Some account of the late learned George Psalmanazar, the reputed Formosan and convert to Christianity. (See his will in our last volume, p. 43.)

PSalmanazar was undoubtedly a Frenchman born : he had his education first in a free-school taught by two Franciscan monks, and afterwards in a college of Jesuits in an archiepiscopal city, the name of which, as also those of his birth-place and of his parents, remain yet an impenetrable secret. Upon leaving the college, he was recommended as a tutor to young gentlemen ; but soon fell into a mean rambling kind of life, that produced him plenty of disappointments and misfortunes. The first pretence he took up with was, that of being a sufferer for religion. He procured a certificate of his being an Irishman who had left his country for the sake of the Roman catholic religion, and was going on a pilgrimage to Rome. It was necessary, indeed, that he should be equipped in the proper garb of a pilgrim ; but not being in a condition to purchase one, though it consisted only of a long staff handsomely turned, and a short leathern or oil-cloth cloak, he betook himself to the following stratagem. In a chapel dedicated to a miraculous saint, he had ob-

served such an one hung up as a monument of gratitude by some wandering pilgrim, arrived at the end of his journey; and though this chapel was never without a number of devotees, who prayed and burnt tapers before the image of the saint, he was not deterred from venturing in, and taking both staff and cloak away, at noon-day: he escaped without any enquiry after him, carried off the booty unmolested, made haste to a private corner, threw the cloak about his shoulders, and stalked, in all sanctified gravity, with the staff in his hand, till he got out of the city: "Being thus accoutred (says he) and furnished with a proper pass, I began, at all proper places, to beg my way in a fluent Latin, accosting only clergymen, or persons of figure, by whom I could be understood, and found them mostly so generous and credulous, that I might easily have saved money, and put myself into a much better dress before I had gone a score or two of miles; but so powerful was my vanity and extravagance, that as soon as I had got what I thought a sufficient viaticum, I begged no more, but viewed every thing worth seeing, and then retired to some inn, where I spent my money as freely as I had obtained it." He tells us, that he frequently met with objects that made him shrink. In lonely places the carcasses of men rotting and stinking by the way side, fastened with ropes round their necks to posts; these were disbanded soldiers and sailors, who used, after the peace of Ryswick, to infest the roads,

and were, in consequence, hung up by scores at a time, and thus exposed *in terrorem*. At other places were to be met small crosses with inscriptions, "Pray for the soul of A. B. that was found murdered on this spot." At the age of sixteen, when he was in Germany, he fell upon the wild project of passing for a Formosan. He recollected, that he had heard the Jesuits speak much of China and Japan, and was rash enough to think that what he wanted of a right knowledge, he might make up by the strength of a pregnant invention, which here, it must be confessed, found ample scope to work in. He set himself to form a new character and language. a grammar, a division of the year into twenty months, a new religion, and what not! His alphabet was written from right to left, like the oriental tongues: and he soon inured his hand to write it with great readiness. He now thought himself sufficiently prepared to pass for a Japanese converted to christianity. He altered his Avignon certificate as well as he could, reassumed his old pilgrim's habit, and began his tour, though with a heavy heart, to the Low Countries. Under the pretence of being a Japanese converted by some Jesuit missionaries, and brought to Avignon to be farther instructed by them, as well as to avoid the dreadful punishment inflicted on converts by the emperor of Japan, he travelled several hundred leagues with an appearance, however, so dismal, and shabby, as to exceed even the very common beggars. His affairs now grew from

from bad to worse: want sorely pinched him, and an inveterate itch added to all his other misfortunes. This, however, he rather looked upon as a merciful dispensation, inasmuch as it proved the means of preserving him from the base designs of certain procuresses, who wandering about the streets of Brabant and Flanders, picked up likely youths, in order to make a lewd trade of them. Psalmanazar, very young, sanguine, and agreeable, was sometimes led by them in a seeming hospitable manner to certain charitable ladies, to receive, as was pretended, some tokens of their generosity; but in reality, that he might make a less commendable return to the benefactress: "But my distemper," says he, "proved too disgustful a bar for me ever to be put to the trial."—At Leige he enlisted into the Dutch service, and was carried by his officer to Aix-la-Chapelle. He afterwards entered into the elector of Cologne's service; where the debauched lives of his comrades in the soldiery, extinguishing completely the faint traces of religion, and being still as ambitious as ever to pass for a Japanese, he now chose to profess himself an unconverted or heathenish one, rather than what he had hitherto pretended to be, a convert to christianity; and freely entered the lists against priests and monks, who were assiduously and publicly endeavouring to convince him of his supposed errors. The last garrison he came to was Sluys, where brigadier Lauderdale, a Scotch colonel, introduced him to the chaplain, with whom he was admitted to have a conference, and which, at length, end-

ed in our chaplain's fervent zeal to make a convert of him, by way of recommending, as it afterwards turned out, himself to the then bishop of London, whose piety could not fail of rewarding so worthy an actor. By this time Psalmanazar, growing tired of the soldier's life, listened cordially to the chaplain's proposal of taking him over to England, and he was, accordingly, with great hurry, baptized. No charitable design of converting a soul appeared to be the ruling motive to this piece of solemn mockery; for he was so far from believing our young impostor to be what he pretended, that he had just before taken the most effectual methods to convince himself of the contrary, beyond all possibility of doubting. A letter of invitation from the bishop of London arriving, they set out for Rotterdam, were introduced there to the celebrated Mr. Bafnage, and the English and French protestant churches. Psalmanazar was, in general, much caressed there; but some there were, who put such shrewd questions to him, as carried an air of their not giving all the credit he could have wished. This threw him upon a whimsical expedient by way of removing all obstacles, viz. that of living upon raw flesh, roots, and herbs; and he soon habituated himself, he tells us, to this new and strange food, without receiving the least prejudice to his health; taking care to add a good deal of pepper and spices by way of concoctors, whilst the people's astonishment at his diet served him for sauce of no contemptible relish. At his arrival in London he was introduced to
our

our good bishop, was received with great humanity, and soon found a large number of friends among the well disposed both of clergy and laity. "But (says he) I had a much greater number of opposers to combat with, who though they judged rightly of me in the main, were far from being candid in their account of the discovery they pretended to make to my disadvantage; particularly doctors Halley, Mead, and Woodward. The too visible eagerness of these gentlemen to oppose me at any rate for a cheat, served only to make others think the better of me, and even to look upon me as a kind of confessor; especially as those gentlemen were thought to be no great admirers of revelation, to which my patrons thought I had given so ample a testimony." His complexion, which happened to be very fair, was an unanswerable objection against his being of Formosa, which lies under the tropic: but he soon hatched a lucky distinction between those whose business exposes them to the sun, and those who keep at home, or under ground, without feeling the least degree of the reigning heat. On the other hand, his opposers were as much at a loss to find out his real country by his pronounciation of any of the languages he was master of. Dr. Mead took upon him to be very positive that he was of German or Dutch extraction; "But he might as well (says Psalmanazar) have affirmed me to have been an Ethiopian from my complexion." As to his moral character, scandalous falsehoods were soon dispersed abroad, and crimes imputed to him that he was

naturally averse to. On the other hand, the exact care he took of his behaviour and conversation, the plainness of his dress and diet, the little trouble he gave himself about wealth and preferment, and his reservedness to the fair sex; the warmth he expressed for religion, and the delight he was observed to take in the public offices of it, were, to his friends, convincing proofs of his sincerity. A variety of judgments were formed, even among those who thought him a cheat. Those of the church of Rome believed he was bribed to the imposture by some English ministers, in order to expose their church: the protestants in Holland thought he was hired to explode predestination, and to cry up the episcopacy of England, in derogation of the Presbyterian government: some represented him as a Jesuit in disguise, others as a tool of the nonjurors, among whom he had been introduced by his old friend the chaplain, who, by way of advancing his own fortune, introduced him also to all the great men in church and state. Before he had been three months in London, he was so cried up for a prodigy, that every body was desirous of seeing him; and to this the public prints, foreign as well as domestic, contributed, by blazing forth things in his praise, for which there was not the least foundation. He was presently sent to translate the church catechism into the Formosan language; it was received by the bishop of London with candour, the author rewarded with generosity, and his catechism laid up among the most curious manuscripts. It was examined by

the learned, who found it regular and grammatical, and gave it as their opinion, that it was a real language, and no counterfeit. After such success, our author was soon prevailed upon to write the well-known history of Formosa, which soon after appeared. A task so arduous and dangerous did not startle our young adventurer; though scarce twenty years old, and an entire stranger to these countries, he undertook it without hesitation. The booksellers were so earnest with him to dispatch it, whilst the town was hot in expectation of it, that he was scarcely allowed two months to write the whole, notwithstanding the almost constant avocations from visitors at home, and invitations abroad. The first edition had not been long published before a second was called for. In the interim, he was sent by the good bishop to Oxford, to pursue such studies as he was most inclined to, whilst his opposers and advocates in London were disputing about the merits and demerits of his book.—The learned at Oxford were not less divided in their opinions of our author. A convenient apartment was, however, assigned him in one of the colleges. He had all the advantages of learning the university could afford him, and a learned tutor to assist him. Here, to make a show of retrieving the time wasted abroad in the day time in company, he used to light his candle, and let it burn the greatest part of the night in his study, that his neighbours might believe he was plying his books; and sleeping in his easy chair, would often leave the bed

for a whole week just as he found it, to the great surprise of his bed-maker. He pretended soon to have swelled legs, which his friends failed not to account for, kindly intreating him to submit to more regular hours of rest; but he continued to go limping about like a gouty old fellow, though no one enjoyed a better share of health, or flow of spirits. Upon his return to London, he continued, for about ten years, to indulge a course of idleness and extravagance, with some sort of gallantry with the ladies, among whom (some of them persons of fortune and character) he became a great favourite. During this time, a scheme was proposed to him, which he was to father, of getting money by a white sort of Japan, the art of which was supposed to be brought by him from Formosa. But this, and several others, proved of short duration. The behaviour of his friends, and the objections they now began to make, put our adventurer upon thinking that they had a less charitable opinion of him than formerly, and that it was time to think of getting into some reputable employment, before the subscriptions, which the benevolent had long afforded him, should be withdrawn. Some absurdities, however, observed in his history of Formosa, in the end effectually discredited the whole relation, and saved him the trouble, and his friends the mortification, of an open confession of his guilt. He seemed, through a long course of life, to abhor the imposture, yet contented himself with owning it to his most intimate friends. Psalmanazar's learning and

and ingenuity, during the remainder of his life, did not fail to procure him a comfortable subsistence from his pen. He was concerned in compiling and writing works of credit, and lived exemplarily for many years. His death happened in 1763. In his last will and testament, dated Jan. 1, 1762, he declares that he had long since disclaimed, even publicly, all but the shame and guilt of his vile imposition, and orders his body to be buried, wherever he happens to die, in the day-time, and in the lowest and cheapest manner. "It is my earnest request," says he, "that my body be not inclosed in any kind of coffin, but only decently laid in what is commonly called a shell, of the lowest value, and without lid or other covering which may hinder the natural earth from covering it all around."

An account of the Marquis de Fratteaux, who, in the year 1752, was clandestinely seized and carried off from England; by a gentleman who had an opportunity of being an eye-witness of the whole transaction, and was intimately connected with the marquis's family.

Monsieur Bertin de Bourdeille, the marquis's father, was twice married; and had by his two wives three sons; the marquis de Fratteaux by his first wife; and by his second Monsieur Bertin, now bishop of Vannes, and M. Bertin de Bourdeille, at present minister of state in France. Old M. Bertin is a gentleman of

a very good family, and master of requests: he is a man of genius, a great enterprizer, a great calculator, and very devout, but immensely avaritious. He never rendered himself remarkable by any extraordinary act of patriotism; but, on the other hand, he so increased his wealth, and turned his money to so good an account, that he may be esteemed one of the richest gentlemen in France. The marquis, his son, is very captious, very brave, and very expensive, with very little judgment; his younger brothers are very sensible, very devout, and have great œconomy without any avarice. The character of the marquis being so very different from those of his father and brothers, it was said (but I do not vouch it as a fact) the father declared publicly, that this child was changed at nurse, and the marquis consequently was not his son, but that he perceived the deception too late to be able to prove it judicially; certain however it is, that the marquis was never loved as a son.

The marquis having engaged in the army, was a captain of horse at the peace of 1748, and then retired to Paris, to live according to his income; but his debts, and the smallness of his pay, did not permit him to make any figure: his creditors and himself jointly addressed his father to pay his debts, and set him clear, but the old gentleman was long deaf upon that subject, till at length, by dint of entreaties, he gave him a rent-charge of 3000 livres [about 131 l. 5 s. sterling] a year, and also the marquisate of Fratteaux,

which might produce about 1000 livres [about 43 l. 15 s. sterling] more; but not being able to pay all his debts with this income, he sold his commission, and gave the produce to his creditors.

The father immediately purchased the place of a master of requests for his youngest son, Bertin de Bourdeille; bought him a grand house in Paris, in the street called La Rue de Hazard, and furnished it magnificently; paid for his equipage and domestics; and gave him 50,000 livres [2887 l. 10 s.] a year for his table expences. Soon after this, he and his son, the master of requests, by their interests procured the bishoprick of Vannes for the other brother, who was at that time vicar-general to the bishop of Perigueux, built him an episcopal palace, and paid all the expences of his bulls from the pope, &c. Thus the poor marquis, the eldest son and heir apparent of the family, lodged in a ready furnished chamber, eat from a cook's shop, and trudged on foot, while his younger brothers had their superb palaces, kept open tables, and splashed their eldest brother with their coaches as he walked the streets. This behaviour of the father soon turned the few brains of the marquis, who quitted Paris, and went and shut himself up in his castle at Fratteaux.

Bourdeille, where old M. Bertin dwelt, was half way between Fratteaux and Perigueux, the capital of the province, where the father and the marquis often went; yet they never visited nor spoke to each other, but even shunned meeting together. But the mar-

quis talked loudly of his father's ill treatment of him.

While things were in this situation, a regiment of horse came to garrison the province, and part of them were sent to Perigueux; this caused the marquis to go thither more frequently than before; and it is reported that the father had been told that the M. de Fratteaux had gained over some cavaliers to shoot him through the head, in a little forest between Bourdeille and Perigueux; and that the marquis being advertised of a certain day when his father was to pass that way, had sent his friends to way-lay him; but the father prevented the execution of their design by taking the road to Vannes (to communicate this to his son the bishop) in the room of his former route. Be that as it will, the father and the bishop went together to Paris, to the other son, the master of requests, to concert the proper methods to get hold of the marquis; and they obtained a letter de cachet to confine him in the nearest fort to that province, which order was soon put in execution.

The public soon learned the news of the marquis having been seized, and every one cried out against the father, especially the nobility of that province, who are very numerous: they were ignorant of the marquis's attempt, if any attempt of the kind had ever been made, on the life of his father, and only attributed the cause to the indiscretions of the marquis towards his father, who, they thought, had carried his vengeance too far against his own child.

The

The noblesse of the province formed a project to deliver the marquis from his confinement. A large association was made, which was very secretly kept; and they assembled at the appointed day at a neighbouring place in the forest. That no one might have any suspicion of their design, they cloathed themselves in the uniform of the *marechaussée*, and carried with them a man bound and fettered like a criminal, with a pretended order from the king. Thus prepared they came to the fort, distributing themselves so as to hinder the centinels from opposing them, or from alarming the main guard: they then knocked at the gate, and being let in, told the gaoler he must put the pretended criminal in the same place with the *marquis de Fratteaux*. The gaoler accordingly carried the criminal, accompanied with these pretended officers of the *marechaussée*, to the very chamber where the marquis was; upon which, clapping a pistol to the gaoler's head, they forbid him to speak a word on pain of death: they then took the marquis with them, and shutting all the gaolers into the prison, and carrying all the keys away with them, they got safe to the forest.

This affair made no noise, nor was it enquired after, because some of the noblest families of France were in the plot; but the marquis would have been soon retaken, had he not got immediately into Spain. On his arrival at Madrid he waited on the bishop of Rennes, who was at that time ambassador from France to that court, and was received as his rank re-

quired. He gave the bishop a distinct account of his misfortunes, and besought him to mediate between him and his father, which the bishop immediately undertook, and wrote accordingly to court. But how was the good man surprised when he received, for answer, express orders not to permit the marquis to visit him. The bishop sent at midnight to desire the marquis would come no more to him, for reasons which he could not be ignorant of, and which he begged leave to be excused from repeating, and advised him privately not to stay above a week at farthest in Spain, or his person would not be in safety. The marquis took his friendly advice, and without any further information set out the next day for England, where he arrived shortly after.

It is the custom in France to pass over in silence many affairs, of which the too close examination would produce fatal consequences. When they are thoroughly acquainted with any designs, they are careful to prevent them, and wait, though it should be a long time, for a favourable opportunity to punish the authors of them. Some days before the battle of *La Feldt*, a scheme was laid to seize and carry off the king of France from the camp; but it was timely discovered by the vigilance of *M. de Seckelles*, then intendant of the army, and consequently prevented. The carts which carried the uniforms of the body guards, and which were to have been made use of in the execution of the plot, were all seized and burnt, without even the chests, &c. being opened, that the army might not ask for what these uniforms were design-

designed. Immediately one Fontauban, a spy of the two armies, a man of an intriguing genius, who had helped to ruin many of the nobility by the usurious bonds he had made them contract, and by the pleasures he had procured for them, not daring to return to Paris, thought he should be safe at Lille, in Flanders: but he was taken up under the pretence that he had tried to negotiate several bills of sundry lords who were yet minors, and under guardianship: he was carried to M. de Sechelles, who had in his hands sufficient proof of his manifold guilt, and he was interrogated in the cabinet of the minister, who was assisted only by a discreet secretary. After six hours examination he was sent to prison, and an order given to a priest to go and prepare him for that death he was to suffer in three hours after. A gallows was fixed in the market-place, and twelve regiments of foot were ordered to surround the place, and that the very moment the criminal appeared, the drums should beat to arms, and never cease till the execution was over, that no person whatsoever might hear what he said. All this was done, and the dead body was burnt at the foot of the gallows, with all the papers of the proceedings of that affair.

The French are often surprised at the choice their kings make of ministers and favourites; it is he alone who, by secret proceedings, is able to know his subjects, and he very often leaves the curious public ignorant of the cause of his preferring a silent punishment; for in the above plot there were more French than English or Germans.

In like manner, if the marquis de Fratteaux was guilty of the attempt on his father's life, his father could not make too many secret precautions to seize him; and thereby not only preserve his own life, but shun the ignominy a public punishment would have cast upon his own family; and therefore the steps he took were the most wise and prudent: for if he had accused his son in a court of justice, he would have been punished according to all the rigour of the law, and the father would not have been able, either by his interest or his riches, to take him then out of the hands of justice. Parricides in France are punished by the wheel and fire; and the king, with all his authority, could not have pardoned him: the only favour which could have been granted, would have been a transmutation of his sentence to beheading, and even then the scandal following such a crime would have been an indelible blot upon the father and the whole family.

In considering impartially this affair, it is very easy to perceive, that if the marquis had not been chargeable with that attempt, he had been guilty of some other capital crime; and the coldness with which the English ministry acted, in sending after him, shews that they were somewhat in accord with the court of France, and were not willing that he should be brought back to England: because he being free in London, might have found there bad people, as capable to execute his design upon his father, as his father had found to seize and carry off his son.—These are the charges of accusation brought against M. de Frat-

Fratteaux, which neither the court of France, nor that of England, thought fit to make public.

It has been said that, after M. de Fratteaux was carried off, he languished in the Bastile; which is totally false: he is now actually at liberty at his estate at Fratteaux; for when his brother, M. Bertin de Bourdeille, was made intendant at Lyons, he obtained his liberty, on his giving his word of honour to M. Bertin de Bourdeille, to remain at his estate at Fratteaux, and never to go above six miles from it without leave from his father. Two months after his arrival there, his father went to see him, and he had leave to return the visit at Bourdeille. He has kept his word of honour strictly, and lives at present in cordiality with his whole family.

Epitaph on the late Doctor King, of St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, written by himself, in order to be engraved on a silver case, in which he directed his heart should be preserved, in some convenient part of that house.

EPITAPHIUM
GULIELMI KING;

*A seipso scriptum
Pridie nonas Junii
Die natali Georgii III.
MDCCLXII.*

Fui
GULIELMUS KING, L.L.D.
Ab anno MDCCXIX. ad annum
MDCC—

Hujus Aulæ Præfectus.
Literis humanioribus a puero deditus;
Eas usque ad supremum vitæ diem colui.
Neque vitiis carui, neque virtutibus;
Imprudens et improvidus, comis et benevolus;

Sæpe æquo iracundior,
Haud unquam ut essem implacabilis.
A luxuria pariter ac avaritia
(Quam non tam vitium
Quam mentis insanitatem esse duxi)
Prorsus abhorrens.
Cives, hospites, peregrinos
Omnino liberaliter accepi.
Ipse et cibi parvus, et vini parcissimus.
Cum magnis vixi, cum plebeis, cum
omnibus,
Ut homines noscerem, ut me ipsum
imprimis:
Neque, Eheu, novi!
Permultos habui amicos,
At veros, stabiles, gratos,
(Quæ fortasse est gentis culpa)
Perpaucissimos,
Plures habui inimicos,
Sed invidos, sed improbos, sed inhu-
manos.
Quorum nullis tamen injuriis
Perinde commotus fui
Quam deliquis meis.
Summam, quam adeptus sum, se-
nectutem
Neque optavi, neque accusavi.
Vitæ incommoda neque immoderate
ferens,
Neque commodus nimium con-
tentus.

Mortem neque contempsi,
Neque metui.
Deus optime,
Qui hunc orbem & humanos tres curas
Miscerere animæ meæ!

TRANSLATION.

EPITAPH
OF WILLIAM KING:

*Written by himself
June the fourth,
Birth-day of George III.
MDCCLXII.*

I was
WILLIAM KING, L. L. D.
From the year MDCCXIX. to the year
MDCC—

Principal of this hall:
Given to polite letters from a boy:
I cultivated them even to the last day of
my life.

I want—

I wanted neither vices, nor virtues ;
 Imprudent and improvident, gentle and
 benevolent ;

Often too prone to anger,
 Never implacable.

To luxury as well as avarice
 (Which last I considered not as a vice
 But as madness)
 Totally averse.

Citizens, guests, and foreigners,
 I received with the most open hospi-
 tality :

Myself temperate in eating
 In drinking most temperate.

I lived with the high, with the low,
 with all,

That I might know mankind, and
 chiefly myself :

Both which, alas ! I knew not.

I had very many friends ;
 But true, firm, grateful,

(Which perhaps is the national failing)
 very, very few.

I had many enemies,
 But, envious, but wicked, but inhuman ;

With those injuries, however,
 I was never so deeply affected
 As with my own transgressions.

The extreme old age to which I at-
 tained,

I neither wished for, nor accused :
 Neither bearing the evils of life too
 impatiently,

Nor too much delighted with its blef-
 sings.

Death I neither despised,
 Nor feared.

Most highest,
 Who takest care of this world and the
 affairs of men,

Have mercy upon my soul !

NATURAL HISTORY.

IT has been justly regretted, that we know little more of the inland parts of Spain, than of the inland parts of Africa. Except the Spanish novels, and the Ladies travels into Spain, there is scarce a book yet extant from which we can form any idea of the manners of the people, or the produce or curiosities of the country; some letters lately published having only disappointed the curiosity they raised. The following piece, therefore, must be considered as a valuable addition of knowledge to the common stock, as the product of a mine scarce opened before, which abounds with the most valuable and curious materials. It is greatly to be wished that the ingenious author would transmit some farther account of a people who are, in many respects, what the rest of Europe was five centuries ago. They have no intercourse with other nations, either for pleasure or profit; their superstition has suffered very little from the advancement of general knowledge, and they have preserved their ancient habits of life, which, in other places, have been changed by the improvement of arts, and the establishment of manufactories.

There are, besides, in the interior parts of Spain, many curious remains of Moorish antiquity, many traditions of unwritten events, many opinions which have been driven from the rest of Europe, and some amusements and employments known no where else.

Though the following letter relates principally to the sheep and sheep-walks of Spain, it contains, however, many other very curious particulars

relating to the face of the country and its product and contents, the revenues of the king, the character of the ecclesiastics, and the æconomy of a pastoral life.

Account of the sheep and sheep-walks of Spain, in a letter from a gentleman in Spain, to Mr. Peter Collinson, F. R. S.

S I R,

THERE are two kinds of sheep in Spain. The coarse-wooled sheep, who remain all their lives in their native country, and who are housed every night in winter; and the fine-wooled sheep, who are all their lives in the open air, who travel every summer from the cool mountains of the northern parts of Spain, to feed all the winter on the southern warm plains of Andaloufia, Manca, and Extremadura. From computations made with the utmost accuracy it has appeared, that there are five millions of fine-wooled sheep in Spain, and that the wool and flesh of a flock of ten thousand sheep produced yearly about 24 reals a head, which we will suppose to be nearly the value of 12 English sixpences; of these but one goes clear a head to the owner yearly, three sixpences a head goes yearly to the king, and the other eight go to the expences of pasture, tithes, shepherds, dogs, salt, shearing, &c.

Thus the annual product of the five millions of sheep amounts to 37 millions and a half of sixpences, a little more or less, of which

which there is about three millions and a half for the owners; above 15 millions enter into the treasury, and seven millions and a half go to the benefit of the public. Hence it is the kings of Spain call these flocks in their ordinances, *the precious jewel of the crown*.

Formerly this jewel was really set in the crown, a succession of many kings were lords of all the flocks: hence that great number of ordinances, penal laws, privileges, and immunities which issued forth in different reigns for the preservation and special government of the sheep: hence a royal council was formed under the title of the council of the grand royal flock, which exists to this day, though the king has not a single sheep. Various exigencies of state, in different reigns, alienated by degrees the whole grand flock from the crown, together with all its privileges, which were collected and published in the year 1731, under the title of laws of the royal flock; a volume in large folio of above 500 pages.

The wars and wants of Philip the first's reign forced that king to sell forty thousand sheep to the marquis of Iturbietta, which was the last flock of the crown.

Ten thousand sheep compose a flock, which is divided into ten tribes. One man has the conduct of all. He must be the owner of 4 or 500 sheep, strong, active, vigilant, intelligent in pasture, in the weather, and in the diseases of sheep. He has absolute dominion over 50 shepherds and 50 dogs, five of each to a tribe. He chuses them, he chastises them, or discharges them at will; he is the prepositus or chief shepherd of

the whole flock. You may judge of his importance by his salary; he has 40 pounds a year and a horse, whereas the first shepherd of a tribe has but 40 shillings a year, the second 34, the third 25, the fourth 15, and a boy 10 shillings a year. All their allowance is two pounds of bread a day each. They may keep a few goats and sheep in the flock, but the wool is for the master; they have only the lambs and the flesh. The chief shepherd gives them three shillings in April, and three in October, by way of regale for the road; and these are all the sweets these miserable wretches enjoy; exposed every day in the year to all weathers, and every night to lie in a hut. Thus fare, and thus live, generally to old age, 25,000 men, who cloath kings in scarlet, and bishops in purple; for that is the number computed to keep the fine-wooled sheep of Spain, with the same number of dogs of the large mastiff kind, who are allowed two pounds of bread a-piece a day. I often saw these flocks in the summer sheep walks of the hills and vales of Leon, Old Castile, Cuenca, and Arragon. I saw them in their winter plains of Manca, Extremadura, and Andaloufia. I often met them in their peregrination from the one to the other. I saw and I saw again. One eye is worth an hundred ears. I enquired, I observed, and even made experiments. All this was done when I happily got acquainted with a good plain old friar, who had a consummate knowledge of all the mechanical, low, minute circumstances and œconomy of a flock. He told me that he was the son of a shepherd, that he had followed 15 long years the

the tribe of sheep his father led, that at 25 years of age he begged an old primer, that at 30 he could read, that at 36 he had learned Latin enough to read mass and the breviary, that he was ordained by Don Juan Navarra, lord bishop of Albarazzin, who, as it is known, even to a proverb in Spain, has ordained thousands, declaring these 40 years in a loud voice, *That a priest is the most precious boon which a bishop can bestow, in the name of God, to mankind, even though he was as unlearned as an apostle.* That thus ordained he entered into the order of St. Francis, that he had never meddled in their affairs these 24 years past, but only said mass, confessed, instructed, and gave an eye to about 500 wethers who grazed in the neighbouring downs for the use of the convent; that he had read the bible, the lives of the saints, and the lives of the popes, with no other view in the world but to find out all that was said about shepherds; that good Abel was the first shepherd; that all the patriarchs were shepherds; that the meek shepherd Moses was chosen to deliver the people of God out of bondage; that Saul, in seeking his father's flocks found a kingdom; that David went out from his flock to slay the Philistine giant; that 14,000 sheep was the chief reward Job received for his invincible patience; that Isidro, the protecting saint of Madrid, was not, as is vulgarly believed, an husbandman, like wicked Cain, but that he was really a keeper of sheep; that the great Pope Sixtus Quintus was verily and truly a shepherd, and not a swine-herd; that, for his part, he had forsaken his sheep to become a shepherd of

men. He had all these things by heart just as he had all the minute circumstances of the sheep he had followed, and this letter would have been imperfect had I not met him.

The five millions of sheep pass the summer in the cool mountains and hills above-named. Before we begin their itineraries to their winter walks, let us see how a few flocks live in a couple of cantons, which I will chuse to serve as examples for all the rest. One is the Montana, the other is Molina Arragon. I select these two for these reasons; because I passed two summers in one, and a summer in the other. One is the most northern part of Spain, and at the greatest distance from the winter walks; the other is towards the east, and the shortest journey the sheep have to make. One is the highest, and the other the lowest summer walk in Spain, and because one is full of aromatic plants and the other has none.

At the extremity of Old Castile there is a territory called the Montana: it is divided into two parts, The low mountains is that chain of mountains which bounds the Cantabrian sea. The city of Santander is its chief port, from whence you ascend southerly, twelve long leagues, a succession of high craggy mountains, to the town of Reynosa in the Upper Montana, which ascent reaches three leagues more, and then you always descend about 14 leagues to the city of Burgos, capital of Old Castile. Reynosa is in the center of an open plain, surrounded by a ridge of high mountains, at whose feet are low hills of pasture land. The source of the great river Ebro is an hour's walk to the west of Reynosa. All the
spring

spring rain, and snow waters of the mountains to the north of Reynosa, run into the bay of Biscay. The waters of the southern chain are collected in the river Pisuerga, which running into the river Duero are carried to the Atlantic ocean at Oporto, and all the water that falls into the plains of Reynosa, runs with the Ebro into the Mediterranean seven leagues below the city of Tortosa. Hence we see that the adjacent parts of Reynosa divide the waters of three seas, which lie north, east, and west. Eight leagues square of this Upper Montana is the highest land of Spain; the mountains rise in the atmosphere to the line of congelation. I see snow from my window this fourth of August that I am writing this. Some years ago, there used to fall so much snow, that the people were forced to dig lanes through the snow to go to church in winter; but there has fallen little snow since the Lisbon earthquake, and some years none at all. It certainly changed the climates of many parts of Spain. No man living saw, nor heard his father say he saw, snow fall in or about Seville, till the year 1756, which extraordinary appearance struck a dread into some convents; they rung the bells to prayers, and made processions to appease the wrath of heaven, as if the falling flakes foreboded the last day. I found many plants only beginning to flower here, which I saw in seed below at Santander. I remember to have seen in Switzerland all the plants but two, which grow in the mountains, hills, and plains of Reynosa, a small yellow flowered *genistella* with an herbaceous, triangular jointed stem, and wild

gooseberry bushes. The high mountains abound with oak, birch, holly, and hazel.

The hills and plains are fine pasture; I never saw a meadow in any other part of Spain, nor cows and horses feed on hay. These mountains are formed of sandstone, lime-stone, plaister-stone, [talc] and emery stone. The sandstone is at the summit of the mountains and hills in some, and the lime-stone forms the body. You see the contrary in others, but the sandstone abounds, and the plaister is always the lowest. As for example, the high mountain of Arandilla, which is about a small league north of the town, is all sandstone at the summit; its body is a mass of ash-coloured lime stone, in which you find imprisoned petrified cornua ammonis and scollops shells, and beds of plaister-stone at its foot towards the plain, which join to strata of black marble veined with white and yellow, which is no more than a purer lime-stone, like all other marble, and you find great blocks of emery-stone in the plain and on the hill to the east of Reynosa, of which I will say a word, because I think its nature is not truly known, at least that of emery, which the looking-glass grinders of the king's fabric at St. Ildefonso say is the most biting emery they ever used, and I never saw any other in its native matrix. That iron has been, and is now, in a fluid state, percolating through the earth, and that it subsides, crystallises, or is precipitated to form different bodies, is demonstrated by the black and red bloodstone (hematites); by some beautiful stalactites, which are almost pure iron; by the eagle-stone; by figured pyrites;

pyrites; by native vitriol, and by native crocus. When this fluid iron penetrates a rock of sand-stone, and only stains the surface of each grain of a brownish, reddish, or yellow colour, it is only sand and crocus. But when this fluid iron, joined with the crystalline matter, is in a fluid state, in the very act of the crystallisation of each grain of sand, it incorporates with it, increases its weight and hardness, it is emery. The earths of the mountains and hills are of the nature of the rock below. If it be lime-stone, the soil cast into any acid liquor will boil up with a violent effervescence, and the acid will dissolve it. If the rock below be sand-stone, plaister-stone, or emery, the earths of the hill or mountain will remain quiet in the acid; there is no effervescence nor dissolution. I often observed that when the rocks below are mixed, (calcareous and non-calcareous) the soil of the surface is of a mixed nature too, and I always found the action of the acid to be weak or strong upon these earths, in proportion to the stone that abounds. The farmers have found out by experience the genus of these two simple, and even the mixt soils; they know that corn grows best in the sod that covers the lime-stone, that the mixed requires much manure, and that the deep, fat, clayey soil, which covers the sand-stone must have more ploughing and other labour than the farmer can afford, and corn-land and calcareous or lime-stone land, are synonymous terms in this country. These rocks and earths would be improperly mentioned in a letter upon wool, was it not that the sheep

find out the nature of these three soils as sure as farmers and acids.

The first thing the shepherd does when the flock returns from the south to their summer downs, is to give them as much salt as they will eat; every owner allows his flock of a thousand sheep one hundred aroves or twenty-five quintals of salt, which the flock eats in about five months; they eat none in their journey, nor in their winter walk. This has ever been the custom, and it is the true reason why the kings of Spain cannot raise the price of salt to the height it is in France, for it would tempt the shepherds to stint the sheep, which, it is believed, would weaken their constitutions and degrade the wool. The shepherd places fifty or sixty flat stones at about five steps distance from each other, he strews salt upon each stone, he leads the flock slowly through the stones, and every sheep eats to his liking. But then they never eat a grain of salt when they are feeding in lime-stone land; whether it be on the grass of the downs, or on the little plants of the corn-fields after harvest-home. The shepherd must not suffer them to stay too long without salt; he leads them into a spot of [argillaceous] clayey soil, and in a quarter of an hour's feeding, they march to the stones and devour the salt. If they meet a spot of the mixed soil, which often happens, they eat salt in proportion. Ask the shepherd why the sheep eat no salt in lime-stone soil, and but little in the mixt? Because, Sir, it is corn-land. I know, and indeed who does not know, that lime abounds

in saline matter, but then the salt which chymists extract from it may not be the genuine salt of the lime-stone before calcination, for the fire may form new combinations. It may be sea-salt, or at least the muriatic acid which rises in the vegetation of grass, and satisfies the sheeps taste for salt. The latter end of July the rams are turned into the tribe of ewes, regulated at six or seven rams for every hundred; when the shepherd judges they are served, he collects the rams into a separate tribe to feed apart; but then there is another tribe of rams that feed apart too, and never serve the ewes, but which are merely for wool, and for the butchery; for though the wool and flesh of wethers are finer and more delicate than those of rams, yet the fleece of a ram weighs more than the fleece of a wether, who is likewise shorter-lived than the ram, which compensation is the reason there is so few tribes of wethers in the royal flock of Spain. The fleeces of three rams generally weigh twenty-five pounds; there must be the wool of four wethers and that of five ewes to weigh twenty-five pounds. There is the same disproportion in their lives, which depend upon their teeth, for when they fail they cannot bite the grass, and they are condemned to the knife; the ewes teeth, from their tender constitutions, and the fatigue of breeding, begin to fail after five years of age, the wethers after six, and the robust ram not till towards eight. It is forbidden to expose rams flesh to sale, but the law is eluded; they cut the old rams, and as soon as

the incision is healed, they are sold to the butchers at a lower price than coarse-wooled wethers; that is the reason such bad mutton is generally eaten in Madrid, and that is the reason there are more rams and fewer lambs stones sold and eaten every day in the year in Madrid, than in the rest of Europe.

At the latter end of September they put on the redding or ochre; it is a ponderous irony earth, common in Spain; the shepherd dissolves it in water, and dawbs the sheeps backs with it from the neck to the rump. It is an old custom. Some say it mixes with the grease of the wool, and so becomes a varnish impenetrable to the rain and cold; others, that its weight keeps the wool down, so hinders it from growing long and coarse; and others, that it acts as an absorbent earth, receives part of the transpiration, which would foul the wool, and make it asperous.

The latter end of September the sheep begin their march towards the low plains; their itinerary is marked out by immemorial custom, and by ordinances, and is as well regulated as the march of troops. They feed freely in all the wilds and commons as they pass through; but as they must necessarily pass through many cultivated spots, the proprietors of them are obliged by law to leave a passage open for the sheep, through vineyards, olive-yards, corn-fields, and pasture land common to towns, and these passages must be at least 90 yards wide, that they may not be too crowded in a narrow lane. These passages are often so long that

that the poor creatures march six or seven leagues a-day to get into the open wilds, where the shepherd walks slow to let them feed at ease and rest; but they never stop, they have no day of repose, they march at least two leagues a day, *ever following the shepherd*, always feeding or seeking with their heads towards the ground till they get to their journey's end, which, from the Montana to Extremadura, is about 150 leagues, which they march in less than 40 days. The chief shepherd's first care is to see that each tribe is conducted to the same district it fed in the year before, and where the sheep were yeaned, which they think prevents a variation in the wool, though indeed this requires but little care, for it is a notorious truth that the sheep would go to that very spot of their own accord. His next care was to fix the toils * where the sheep pass the night, lest they should stray, and fall into the jaws of wolves. Lastly, the shepherds make up their poor huts with stakes, branches, and brambles, for which end, and for firing, they are allowed by the law to cut off one branch from every tree; I believe this to be the reason that all the forest-trees near the sheep-walks in Spain are as hollow as willow-pollards. The roots of trees and the quantity of sap increase yearly with the branches; if you lop off these, all the sap that should go to the annual production, and to the nourish-

ment of buds, stems, leaves, flowers, fruit, and growth of the branches, remains in the trunk, from hence stagnation, fermentation, and rottenness. Next comes the time when the ewes begin to drop their lambs, which is the most toilsome and most solicitous part of the pastoral life. The shepherds first cull out the barren from the pregnant ewes, which are conducted to the best shelter, and the others to the bleakest part of the district. As the lambs fall they are led apart with their dams to another comfortable spot. A third division is made of the last yeaned lambs, for whom was allotted from the beginning the most fertile part, the best soil, and sweetest grass of the down, that they may grow as vigorous as the first yeaned, for they must all march the same day towards their summer-quarters: the shepherds perform four operations upon all the lambs about the same time in the month of March, but first they pay the twentieth lamb; the other half tithe is paid in the winter walk: they cut off their tails five inches below the rump for cleanliness; they mark them on the nose with a hot iron: they saw off part of their horns, that the rams may neither hurt one another nor the ewes: they render impotent the lambs doomed for docil bell-wethers, to walk at the head of the tribe; they make no incision; the shepherd turns the testicles with his finger twenty

* The toils are made of sparto, in meshes a foot wide, and the thickness of a finger, so that toils serve instead of hurdles. The whole square toil is light. Sparto is a sort of rush which bears twisting into ropes for coasting vessels. It swims; hemp sinks: it is called *Boss* by the English sailors.

times about in the scrotum, till he twists the spermatic vessels as a rope, and they wither away without any danger. As soon as the month of April comes about, which is the time of their departure, the sheep express, by various uneasy motions, a remarkable restlessness, and strong desire to go off. The shepherds must exert all their vigilance lest they should escape, and it has often happened that a tribe has stolen a forced march of three or four leagues upon a sleepy shepherd; but he is sure to find them, for they return exactly the same way they came; and there are many examples of three or four strayed sheep walking an hundred leagues to the very place they fed in the year before. Thus they all go off towards their summer mountains in the same order they came, only with this difference, the flocks that go to Leo and Castile are shorn in the road, where we will stay a little to see the apparatus of this operation, whilst the other flocks march on to Molina Arragon. They begin to shear the first of May, provided the weather be fair; for if the wool were not quite dry, the fleeces which are close piled upon one another would ferment and rot; it is for this reason that the sheering houses are so-spacious. I saw some which can contain in bad weather 20,000 sheep, and cost above 5000 l. sterling; besides, the ewes are creatures of such constitutions, that if they were exposed immediately after sheering to the air of a bleak night, they would all perish.

There are 125 sheermen employed to shear a flock of 10,000

sheep; a man sheers twelve ewes a day and but eight rams; the reason of this difference is, not only because the rams have larger bodies, stronger and more wool, but the sheermen dare not tie their feet as they do those of the unresisting ewes. Experience taught, that the bold rebellious ram would struggle even to suffocation in captivity under the sheers; they gently lay him down, they stroke his belly, they beguile him out of his fleece: a certain number of sheep are led into the great shelter-house, which is a parallelogram of 4 or 500 feet long, and 100 wide, where they remain all day; as many as they judge can be dispatched by the sheermen next day are driven from the shelter-hall into a long, narrow, low gut, which is called the sweating place, where they remain all night, crowded as close together as the shepherd can keep them, that they may sweat plentifully, which, as they say, is to soften the wool for the sheers, and oil their edges. They are led by degrees in the morning into the spacious sheering-hall, which joins the sweating-room. The shepherd carries them off as fast as they are sheered to be marked with tar; and as this operation is necessarily performed upon one at a time, it gives a fair opportunity to the shepherds to cull out for the butchery all the sheep of the flock who have outlived their teeth. The sheered sheep go to the fields to feed a little if it be fine weather, and they return in the evening to pass the night in the yard before the house, within the shelter of the walls, but if it be cold and cloudy, they go into

into the house; they are thus brought by degrees to bear the open air, and their first days journeys from the sheering-house to the mountains are short, where we will leave them to conclude their annual peregrination, and go see how fare the flocks of Molina Arragon, which have by this time got thither; but while the mule is saddling, a word of the shorn wool.

The sheep and shearers dispatched, the first thing done is to weigh the whole pile of wool; the next is to divide each fleece into three sorts of wool; the back and belly give the superfine; the neck and sides give the fine; the breast, shoulders, and thighs the coarse wool. A different price is fixed upon these three classes, though the general custom is to sell the whole pile together at a mean price. It is sold after it is washed, when it is to go out of the kingdom, or to any considerable distance in it; for as it never loses less than half its weight in washing, and often more when the sweating is violent, half the carriage is saved.

Here I see that I have changed the order I proposed in setting out, for I have followed the sheep from the mountains to the plains, and back again, but it is not worth mending.

Thirty-one leagues S. E. of Madrid, and five leagues S. of the source of the River Tagus, is the town of Molina Arragon, capital of a lordship of the crown, which is twelve leagues wide, as many long, and almost in the center of Spain. The high lands of this little territory are covered with pine trees; the low lands feed about

150,000 sheep; here I learnt some truths, which prove that the three following opinions should be ranked amongst vulgar errors.

1. That sheep eat and love aromatic plants, and that the flesh of those that feed on hills where sweet herbs abound has a fine taste.

2. That salt springs are not found in the high primitive mountains, but in the low hills and plains only.

3. That metallic vapours destroy vegetation; that no rocks nor mountains pregnant with rich veins of ore are covered with rich vegetable soil.

The town of Molina is almost in the middle of the sheep walks. The solid part of the country is formed of red and grey sand-stone, lime-stone, white and grey granite, and plaister-stone, white, grey, yellow, blueish, greenish, and blood-red; in some places these are all beautifully mixed in one stratum. Time and moisture uncompound these stones; for they have mouldered and are daily mouldering into the soil of the country, which is always of the same nature as that of the rock. The red fuller's earth, with which the manufacturers of Molina clean their cloth, is evidently the very grains of sand of the red rock degraded into earth. The rocks about the town contain either salt or saltpetre; you see the hewn stones of the houses covered with saline efflorescences which are drawn out by the sun after rain. The whole territory of Molina is full of salt springs, but there is a copious salt spring rising out of a land yet higher than the source of the Tagus, and not far from it, which is one of the highest

highest lands in all the inward parts of Spain; for it divides the waters of the ocean and Mediterranean. The Tagus runs 150 leagues to Lisbon, and the two rivers Gaudalvair and Sucar, which rise near it, run to Valencia. This Spring furnishes salt to the jurisdiction and bishopric of Albarrazin. There is another salt spring, in a high land too, which supplies the 82 towns and villages of Molina Arragon with salt. Now I will mention the salt spring that issues out of a spot in the Montana, which is higher than the source of the Ebro, and about a quarter of a mile from it.

There are many iron, copper, lead, and pure pyritous ores in these sheep-walks, where grow the same plants and the same sweet grass as in the other parts. I will give one example: about two hours walk N. W. of Molina there is a little hill called the Platilla; it is about half a league over from valley to valley; its body is solid, rocky, of white granite, through which run in different directions, and without any order, an infinite number of blue, green, and yellow veins of rich copper ores, which hold a little silver, mineralized by a great quantity of arsenic and sulphur. The very surface of the rock is in many places stained blueish and green, and the veins of ore are not above a foot deep in the fissures and in the solid rock, which contain lead ore sometimes up to the surface.

The following plants grow out of the soil which covers these arsenical sulphureous veins, and which is not above a foot deep. True oak, ilex, whose leaves fall, white-thorn, juniper; these are poor

shrubs, because they are browsed by the goats. *Cystus*, wild rose, *uva-ursi*, *phlomis salviæ*, *fol. fl. luteo*, *verbascum* of the highways, *stœchas*, sage, *thymum legitimum*, *clus*, *serpyllum*, greater and lesser; *rosemary*, *helianthemum*, *pimpinella*, *chamædris*, *filipendula*, *stachys lychnoides*, *incana angustifolia flo. aureo. var.* The great *asphodel*, *coronilla* of the meadows, *gallium luteum*, *yar-row*, *campanula radice esculenta a jacobea*, which I saw grow in the sand of the sea-side, and is all quite white. A *glidiolus*, and a little *glaucium*, which grow in corn fields in Spain; *leucanthemum* of the meadows, *orchis*, *ornithogalum*, *muscaris*, *polygala*, and above twenty kinds more, which are found likewise in meadows, corn-fields, highways, hedges, and sea shores; yet the non-calcareous earth of this mineral hill is covered with the same sweet small grass as the rest of the country, even the lime-stone land. I made the same observations at the three greatest mines in Europe; St. Mary of the mines in Alsatia; Claustahl in the Hartz-mountains of Hanover; and Freyberg in Saxony. The mines of St. Mary are at the head of a valley in the Voge-mountains; its hills are some of them covered with oak and pines, others with apple, pear, plum, and cherry trees: others are fine green downs for sheep and cows, with a great variety of plants; others are fields of wheat, which in the year 1759 (as I find it in my notes) gave a product of eight for one. All these things grow in a foot or two deep of soil, which covers a rock full of the most arsenical, sulphureous silver,

or copper, lead, and cobalt ore in Europe, and most of their veins near the surface.

The mines of Claustahl are in a plain which is, in truth, the summit of a mountain. The Dorothy and Caroline veins of silver, lead, and copper ore stretched away eight miles to the Wildman mountain. The finest meadows and sweetest grass are upon these veins, and all their branches near the city; they feed 900 cows, and 200 horses. They are mowed in June; a second grass springs up, which is mowed in August. A multitude of plants grows in these meadows over the mines, as valerian, gallium fl. albo, coronilla, chrysanthemum segetum, leucanthemum, viola tricolor. bif-tort. bonus henricus, St. John's wort, agrimony, ladies mantle, tussilago, &c.

The mines of Freyberg are in the low hills near the city; I saw them all covered with barley in the month of July. A stranger would not imagine that men were reaping corn over hundreds of miners heads, who were blowing up veins of ore, arsenic, and brimstone.

It is true, I also saw mines in the barren naked mountains and hills, but it is certain that their barrenness is not the effect of mineral vapours. The air, moisture, heat, and cold, have more power over the surfaces of some rocks than others, to moulder the stone into earth; such is the high mountain Ramelsberg, at whose foot is the imperial city of Goslar, whose inhabitants live, and have lived these 900 years by the mine of this steep barren mountain. I crept up to its summit, and found

it was split and cracked into millions of fissures, from a foot wide to a hair's breadth: that in other places the rock was shivered into small rotten stones, which, in some spots, were perfectly uncompounded, and fallen into earth, from whence sprung a little grass, moss, and a few plants. In short, I saw that the time of its decay into vegetable mould was not yet come, and that the mountain Ramelsberg will be one day as green as Claustahl, which shews, I think, that the world is not so old as some men fancy. I will make no apology to Mr. Peter Collinson for this digression; I heard Fame declare him twenty years ago an enemy to error; he must love truth, though he finds it placed out of order.

As my duty obliged me to pass hundreds of days at the Platilla mine of Molina, I saw thousands of sheep feed around it. I observed that when the shepherd made a pause, and let them feed at their will, they sought only for the fine grass, and never touched any aromatic plant; that when the creeping serpillum was interwoven with the grass, the sheep industriously nosed it aside to bite a blade, which trouble made them soon seek out a pure graminous spot. I observed too when the shepherd perceived a threatening cloud, and gave a signal to the dogs to collect the tribe and then go behind it, walking apace himself to lead the sheep to shelter, that as they had no time to snoop they would take a snap of stæchas, rosemary, or any other shrub in their way: for sheep will eat any thing when they

they are hungry, or when they walk fast. I saw them greedily devour henbane, hemlock, glaucium, and other nauseous weeds, upon their issue out of the sheering-house. If sheep loved aromatic plants, it would be one of the greatest misfortunes that could befall the farmers of Spain. The number of bee-hives is incredible; I am almost ashamed to give under my hand, that I knew a parish priest who had 5000 hives. The bees suck all their honey, and gather all their wax from the aromatic flowers, which enamel and perfume two thirds of the sheep-walks. This priest cautiously seized the queens in a small crape fly-catch; he clips off their wings; their majesties stay at home. He assured me that he never lost a swarm from the day of this discovery to the day he saw me, which I think was five years.

The shepherd's chief care is not to suffer the sheep to go out of their toils till the morning sun has exhaled the dew of a white frost, and never let them approach a rivulet or pond after a shower of hail, for if they should eat the dewy grass, or drink hail water, the whole tribe would become melancholy, fast, pine away, and die, as often happened. Hail water is so pernicious to men in this climate, that the people of Molina will not drink the river water after a violent shower of hail; experience taught the danger; but let it be never so muddy, and rise never so high after rain, they drink it without fear. Perhaps this may be the unheeded cause of many endemical epidemics of other cities. The sheep

of Andalusia, who never travel, have coarse, long, hairy wool. I saw a flock in Extremadura whose wool trailed on the ground. The itinerant sheep have short, silky, white wool. I do believe, from a few experiments and long observation, that if the fine-wooled sheep stayed at home in the winter, their wool would become coarse in a few generations. If the coarse-wooled sheep travelled from climate to climate, and lived in the free air, their wool would become fine, short, and silky in a few generations.

The fineness of the wool is due to the animal's passing its life in an open air of equal temperature. It is not colder in Andalusia and Extremadura in the winter than it is in the Montana or Molina in summer. There is little frost in Andalusia; sometimes it snows in June in Molina. I felt a cold day upon the least cloud in summer. Constant heat or constant cold, with housing, are the causes of coarse, black, and speckled wool. All the animals, I know, who live in the open air, constantly keep up to the colour of their fires. There are the most beautiful brindled sheep in the world among the coarse-wooled sheep of Spain. I never saw one amongst the fine-wooled flocks; the free but less abundant perspiration in the open air is swept away as fast as it flows, whereas it is greatly increased by the excessive heat of numbers of sheep housed all night in a narrow place. It fouls the wool, makes it hairy, and changes its colour. The swine in Spain, who pass their lives in the woods, are all of one colour, as the wild boars. They have

have fine, silky, curled bristles. Never did a Spanish hog's bristle pierce a shoe. What a quantity of dander is daily secured from the glans of a stabled horse! the curry-comb and hair cloth ever in hand. How clean is the skin of an horse that lives in the open air!

I am, Sir, &c. W. B.

Extract from M. l'Abbé Chappe d'Auteroche's journey to Siberia, for observing the late Transit of Venus over the Sun; performed by orders of his most Christian Majesty.

THE abbé having received orders from the king, and recommendations from the academy, for a journey to Tobolski, set out from Paris at the end of September 1760. The war obliged him to take the route of Vienna and Poland, and he was forced to embark at Ulm upon the Danube, though he knew that the fogs rendered the navigation of that river very slow and inconvenient; these fogs so much retarded him, that he did not arrive at Vienna till the 31st of October 1760.

He proceeded however to Petersburg with all convenient speed, and arrived there the 13th of February; but he was then no less than 800 leagues distant from Tobolski, and he was obliged to furnish himself with provisions of all kinds for the whole journey, before he set out; being furnished also with a sledge and an interpreter, he left Petersburg the 10th of March; on the 14th he

arrived at Moscow, and proceeded forward on the 17th, travelling over the ice with an incredible swiftness, especially on the rivers, where however he found many holes, there being several spots where the water had never frozen; and on the Docka, a space of 100 fathom square, though the ice round it was no less than three feet thick, and the cold so intense that brandy could not be kept liquid.

After he left Petersburg, he met with no mountain that deserved the name for a long tract of country, but traversed a vast plain, which in some parts was open, and in others covered with woods, consisting only of pine and birch. After crossing the Wolga at Nisni-Novogorod, he entered a forest, which was no less than 300 leagues in length; and indeed the whole of his route from Nisni-Novogorod to Tobolski, which was little less than 500 leagues, might be considered as a continuation of that forest. The trees were of the same kind as in the wood already mentioned, but the snow was more considerable, being here at least four feet deep, and the thermometer always 24 or 25 degrees below the freezing point.

As his course lay directly north, the cold grew more intense, and the snow deeper every day; the buildings were also more thinly scattered, so that he was often obliged to travel 25 or 30 leagues with the same horses. The roads were so narrow, that the sledges could scarce pass, and if two met, it was necessary to lay one down on its side, before the other could go by: those who travel with the royal

royal post command the way, and are known by a bell which the first horse carries for that purpose. The abbé had half his sledge carried away by the bad management of his postilion, when he was giving way to one of these carriages, and was obliged to proceed, quite open to the weather, till he arrived at Solikamska; but the distance he leaves us to guess.

He came to this place on the 29th of March, extremely fatigued, having taking no nourishment but what was frozen for eleven days before, as in all that time he had not been able to procure the convenience of a stove.

Solikamska is a little town situated upon the borders of the Kama; in the neighbourhood there are a few wretched salt-works, and some bad mines of copper. As he was obliged to wait here till he could be furnished with a new sledge, he visited these mines and salt-works; and in the salt-works he found several men scourging their bodies with twigs till the skin was as red as scarlet; some minutes after they had desisted from this exercise, they ran out stark naked dropping with sweat, and rolled themselves in the snow. This sight greatly surprized him; but upon enquiry he found it very common in that country.

From Solikamska he set out on the 2d of April, and soon reached the mountains of Wérkhotaúrie, which form a chain that may be considered as a branch of Mount Caucasus; they commence to the southward, and separate Asia from Europe, quite to the Frozen Sea. This ridge is no where higher than from 50 to 80 fathoms, but

the declivity is very steep, and the summit is covered with pine, birch, and fir. The way over these mountains is very frightful, and by night extremely dangerous; for if the sledge deviates ever so little from the beaten track, the unfortunate traveller will inevitably be buried in a gulph of snow, which, when the abbé made his journey, was ready to melt; yet the tallest firs were so loaded with it as to bend under the weight; it was every where seven feet thick upon the ground, and there was no sign of returning spring, not so much as by the flight of a bird; for even the pies and crows, which abound through all Russia, abandon these horrid deserts, where nature herself seems benumbed, and it is only by the traces of the sledge that the country is known to be inhabited. The gloom of desolation surrounds it on every side, and a horrid silence, which is never broken but by the outcries of those that suffer from the perils of the ways. The inhabitants are shut up in their hovels nine months in the year; the snow appears upon the mountains in the beginning of September, and so great a quantity descends in a short time afterwards as to leave scarce any traces of a habitation upon them. The inhabitants are then obliged to break a way through it, and it seldom begins to thaw there till the middle of April, though it gives somewhat sooner in the plain; it does not totally disappear till the end of May, so that the severity of winter is suspended only three months in the year, during which time however they sow rye, oats, barley,

ey, and pease, which they get in by the end of August; but none of them are perfectly ripe.

On the 5th of April the abbé had crossed these mountains, which extend 45 leagues from east to west; and then descended into a large plain, where the snow was so much diminished, that in some places it scarce covered the surface of the ground.

On the 8th, he arrived at a small town called Tumen, where the snow lay only in the beaten tracts; he perceived water also on the ice that still covered the rivers, which hindered the breaking up of the frost to be at hand; he therefore pushed forward with all possible expedition, and on the 10th of April arrived at Tobolski, only six hours before the ice broke, having travelled 800 leagues upon a ledge in a month. The melting of the snow caused so considerable an overflowing of the Irtis, that a fourth part of the town was under water.

The rapidity with which he traversed this vast country did not permit him to examine the manners of the inhabitants with an attention equal to his wishes; but the account he has given of them is as follows:

They profess the religion of the Greek church, but with a fanaticism that seems gradually to increase with the distance from the capital. They are born in the most dreadful slavery, so that the very idea of liberty is not left among them. As their state and situation do not admit the indulgence of artificial wants, their desires are necessarily few: they have neither manufacture nor commerce; their provision is very

bad, and therefore easily procured, consisting of dry or stinking fish, pease, and a coarse black kind of bread made of rye; their drink is a wretched kind of beer, and a liquor they call Quas, which is no other than water fermented with bran, and then mixed with a small quantity of meal. They live in total idleness and inactivity, shut up in their stoves, the extreme nastiness of which is not to be conceived; they are however fond of their condition, and hate the thoughts of stirring out of their dunghil, especially to bear arms; but if they are forced into the service, brandy, and the fear of punishment, will make them tolerable soldiers. The unwholesomeness and inconvenience of their hovels are greatly increased by the severity of the winter, which prevents their communication with the fresh air: their windows are seldom more than a foot wide, and six inches high; and they are also deprived of the light of the sun all the while he is passing through the southern signs; nor have they any artificial light but by splinters of birchwood, which they set on fire, and stick up in the chinks of the floor. This practice is indeed common through all Russia, and frequently causes fires, which almost immediately spread over half a town, as the houses are all built of wood, except in the cities and principal towns. But notwithstanding all this inactivity, confinement, and nastiness, they enjoy robust and uninterrupted health; so effectually does perpetual temperance counterbalance all that can weigh against health and life. There is scarce one among them that is

is weakly or deformed, and their manner of education secures to them this good fortune. The child, as soon as it is born, is laid upon a heap of straw or old rags in a basket, where it sprawls about, and stretches its limbs without any restraint; it is nourished with milk by means of a horn which is fitted to a cow's teats, but sometimes suckled by the mother; the basket is hung at the end of a long elastic pole, so that it may easily be put in motion, and the child rocked as in a cradle; but before it can go alone, it is placed upon the ground, where it rolls about at pleasure, till it learns first to stand, and then to totter along, with nothing to cover it but a shirt, which scarce reaches to the middle of the thigh; by this management their children walk sooner than ours can stand alone. As soon as they are able, they are suffered to run about, and at the end of the winter are playing in the road in the midst of the snow, while the weather is still so cold, that the traveller is afraid of going out of his sledge, though he be covered with fur from head to foot. They are of a large stature, extremely muscular and strong, and live longer than the inhabitants of any other known part of the world; this, however, is not because their situation, upon the whole, is favourable to life in the tender years of infancy, but the contrary; for all the children who are not strong by constitution die soon, and none are reared but those who are born with the greatest natural advantages; more than two thirds of the children that are born here die in

their infancy; and it is common to find but three or four alive in families that have had 16 or 18. Many other causes concur gradually to depopulate the villages that are scattered through this vast desert.

The small-pox frequently carries off half the inhabitants of one of these hamlets at a time, and sometimes a greater proportion; the scurvy is also very fatal among them; and where they can procure spirituous liquors, the inroads of disease and mortality are in proportion to their want of the advantages which make intemperance less fatal in other places. The venereal disease also makes great havock among these unhappy wretches, to whom the method of cure is wholly unknown! it prevails so much in Siberia and Northern Tartary, that there is great reason to believe it will at length depopulate the country.

Tobolski is the capital of Siberia, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants; the clergy consists of about 50 monks or priests, three of whom, including the archbishop, all natives of Poland, are acquainted with the Latin tongue. The manners of the people are the same with those already described, except that they are more corrupt. The women of all ranks and ages paint; they are in general very handsome, but have not the feminine softness which is the principal charm of the sex.

This city had once a considerable trade to China by caravans; but the mutual knavery of the Russian and Chinese merchants soon reduced it to a languishing state; and some differences which arose between the two pow-

rs have since totally destroyed it.

These differences arose from a revolution which happened among the Rungore Calmucs, after the death of Galdan Tcherin, which happened in 1746. Galdan Tcherin was Kan, Caun, or sovereign, of the nation which inhabited that part of Northern Tartary, which is situated between Siberia and China. This nation admitted no sovereign but its kan; and upon the death of Galdan Tcherin a civil war broke out among several competitors to succeed him. The Chinese, who dreaded the power of this nation, which was become formidable to all its neighbours, contrived first to weaken it on this occasion, by favouring each of the competitors by turns, and then to fall upon the conqueror, and destroy his power at once.

The name of this unhappy prince was Amoursaman; and the wretched remains of this once mighty nation, consisting of about 20,000 families, took shelter, under the protection of Russia, upon the banks of the Wolga. Amoursaman, after having wandered from place to place, at last retired to the frontiers of Siberia in 1757, where he died of the small-pox, according to the Russian account which was published about a year or two ago.

The Chinese, as soon as they heard he had retired to Siberia, demanded that he should be delivered up, or, as the Russians say, that he should be confined for life.

It is said, that he continued a long time at Tobolski, though the Russian account makes no mention

of it; and that when he was dead, the body was sent to the frontiers of Siberia, whither the Chinese sent commissaries more than once to examine the body.

The abbé d'Auteroche left at Tobolski two Calmuc ambassadors who had been sent to Petersburg before the death of Amoursaman, and who, at their return to this city, learnt that their nation was no longer existing.

The abbé collected some of their idols, and some principles of their religion, which appears to be a strange mixture of paganism, mahometanism, and christianity.

He returned by the way of Katerinburg, a city to the east of the chain of mountains that has been just described; and in the neighbourhood of this place lie the greatest part of the Russian mines, which the abbé, as a special favour, was permitted to see. The mines of gold are in the plains, contrary to those of all other countries, which are in the mountains; they are indicated by a sandy, greyish earth, and the vein appears at two feet below the surface: its direction is generally north and south, and it seldom reaches deeper than 14 fathom, below which they find water and red ochre; the veins are parallel to each other, and the principal galleries perpendicular to the veins; the extent of the vein from N. to S. is from 20 to 30 fathom, and the width in the upper part, which is always the richest, from four to five inches; it grows narrower as it descends, and contains less metal, which is contrary to the nature of all other mines yet known; the earth which divides one vein from another

another is sandy, and in some places resembles a kind of clay dried and reduced to powder, so that they are generally obliged to shore the galleries with timber. The vein itself is a kind of rock, of a blackish colour, and mixed with earth, but may be broken between the fingers; many topazes are found among it, of the same kind with those of Bohemia; but the produce of the mines, upon the whole, scarcely defrays the expence of working them. The silver mines are not worth mentioning, and the copper turn to very little account.

There are, however, mines of iron, which abundantly atone for the defects of the rest: they are extremely rich, and the metal is the best of the kind in the world.

At Katerinburgh there are also found marble, jasper, porphyry, and other stones of the like kind, which abound in all parts of Siberia; where cornelians and sardonixes are also found.

The abbé left Katerinburg on the 20th of September 1761, and arrived on the 24th at Sabarea, a small hamlet situated on the southern limits of Russia, and inhabited by a people called Baskirs, whom the Russians found very difficult to bring under subjection, they considering themselves as under the protection only of the Czar, and not his subjects. He proposed to proceed by Kongour, which is the usual route, but the way was then impassable; he therefore bent his course towards the Tartars, who are situated more to the south, at some distance from Berna. Many of the inhabitants came out to meet him, and ex-

pressed the utmost kindness and cordiality, by a great variety of signs, which they testified also by their whole deportment and behaviour. They conducted him to the house of the chief of their hamlet, whom they hold in great veneration and esteem; and entertainment was here prepared for him consisting of garden-stuff, with butter and honey. The cottages of these people are as neat and convenient as those of the Siberians are nasty and ill contrived; their manner of life, however, is nearly the same, except that they are mahometans. They are of a large stature, robust, and well-shaped and have, in every respect, the appearance of a martial people: they have preserved their ancient privileges inviolate, and in time of war furnish Russia with a certain number of troops, which she takes into her pay. These Tartars are by nature open, courteous, and liberal, and when the abbé took his leave of them, they doubled the number of horses to his carriages, upon account of the mountains he was to pass, and refused the acknowledgment he offered, not only for them, but the expence he had put them to while he was among them.

At a little distance from this place the way became very frightful, the mountains being extremely steep, and the rain having rendered them as slippery as glass, so that it was with the utmost difficulty the carriages were dragged to the top of the acclivity, though the company all ascended on foot. The abbé being in the lightest carriage, pushed on before, hoping to send assistance from the next

village

village to the rest, but he could get but about the fourth of a league from the place where he left them.

He was then on the borders of the river Tourka, in a bottom, surrounded by mountains on every side: here he made a great fire, and his company ranged themselves about it; it was then near ten o'clock at night; and in about an hour the other carriages were discovered by the light of his fire. The Tartars who came with him then took the lead, and set fire to the firs at proper distances, which they found in the way, in order to light their companions behind. These trees, which kindled from the bottom to the top in a minute, and were very lofty, did them great service, and formed a most pleasing and romantic scene by the wild country which they discovered, at it were, by torch-light; and the sparks they threw out to a great distance.

From this place he proceeded on the 25th at eleven in the morning, and arrived the same day at Pisse. On the 28th he reached a village of Wotiacks, a people who are generally said to be Tartars, but in whom the abbé found no resemblance of that people: neither the men nor women are more than four feet high, and both are of a tender make and constitution; the habit of the men is the same with that of the Russians, but that of the women is wholly different from all others, whimsical, but not unbecoming.

On the 29th in the evening, he arrived on the borders of the river Wiatka, where he waited till the morning, the wind being too high to pass the river (which is full of rocks) safely in the dark. Dur-

ing the night there fell so great a quantity of snow, that it was with the utmost difficulty he got to the ferry, though not distant more than 600 yards; they had already begun to pass it in sledges, and the abbé being unwilling to part with his carriages, hoping he should soon leave the snow behind him, was obliged to double the number of horses. On the 1st of October he arrived at Casan, but not without great difficulty and labour, though he had no less than 42 horses to draw two waggons and five chariots, for the last two days.

Casan is a large city, the capital of a kingdom of the same name. It is governed by a Tartar prince, from whom the abbé received many favours, as he did also from the archbishop, a prelate of great learning, who is held in the highest veneration through all Russia, and was, says the abbé, the only ecclesiastic I met with in all these vast dominions, who heard, without astonishment, that I went from France to Tobolski to observe the transit of Venus.

His arrival at Casan was like an entrance into a new world; the frost had scarcely begun to strip the trees of their leaves; he saw oaks for the first time since his residence in Russia, orchards of fruit-trees, and cultivated inclosures; instead of those boundless and desolate plains, which were scarce inhabited but by animals unknown in Europe, he saw green hills, groves, and gardens, where nature was improved by art, and where many flowers were still in bloom.

Casan still preserves some remains of its ancient opulence, and though

though its commerce is inconsiderable, yet it is the residence of many noble families, who form an agreeable society, and even condescend to mix with their neighbours; the place abounds with all the necessaries and conveniences of life, even to game and fish: the inhabitants have also white bread, which is as little known in Siberia as the pineapple; indeed nothing is scarce at Casan but wine.

He left Casan on the 7th, and passed the Wolga the same day: and as he coasted this river, he came among new nations, the Zermises and the Souvaschi, of which he has recorded nothing but the names. In proportion as he approached Petersburg, which is to the north of Casan, the cold became more severe, and travelling more difficult; some rivers were already frozen, but the ice of others was not thick enough for the sledge; he at length, however, arrived safely at Petersburg, where he passed the winter, and as soon as the sea was open in the spring, he embarked for France, where he arrived in August 1762, having been absent near two years.

By astronomical observation he fixes the longitude of Casan to be 3h. 8m. 37s. East of the meridian of Paris, and the latitude to be 55d. 43m. 58s.

The longitude of Tobolski he fixes by observation also at 4h. 23m. 54s. E. of the meridian of Paris. His account of the Transit of Venus, the phenomenon which he went to observe, is less the object of general curiosity, and less capable of abridgment; for this, therefore, the learned, to whom

alone it can be either useful or pleasing, are referred to the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Paris for 1761.

An account of the journey up Mount Ætna. From the Latin of the late M. D'Orville, in a work intituled Sicula, or the History and Antiquities of the Island of Sicily, &c. 2 vols. folio, published at Amsterdam.

EARLY in the morning of the 18th of July, M. D'Orville left Catanea, and dined at a convent of Benedictines, about 14 miles from that city. These fathers were gathering in their harvest. As far as the monastery and the country was cultivated and very fertile. The little city of Ætna, or Iressa, is thought to have been formerly situated there. A little farther the ground rises and one must traverse a vast forest where our traveller saw the large trees that he had ever observed and had the most difficult roads to pass for three or four miles of the way. After having clambered about 3000 paces, he found himself in a valley, where there was scarce any turf. Here he supped frugally with his fellow travellers, their mule drivers and servants, two guides, inhabitants of the village, came hither to lend them their assistance. They went two miles farther in a litter, but not without much hazard, till they came to a place named Castelluccio where all the company stopped in order to take some rest in one of the caverns formed by the lava of the volcano, for beyond the Benedictines they found no more houses.

and as soon as they had ascended as high as Castellucci, they saw no more trees, nor plants, nor verdure, but only ashes, and pumice stones which were covered with snow. It was cold, our travellers felt it very sensibly, though they were doubly provided with good cloaks, and though with some fagots, which they had picked up in their journey, they made a large fire at the entrance of the cavern, where one may easily suppose they did not rest long.

They set out from hence two hours before day, mounted on their mules, whose bridles their hands benumbed with cold held with difficulty. To see things distinctly, one must reach the top of the mountain before the sun has raised the vapours. The first thing remarkable that presented itself to M. D'Orville, at the foot of that ridge of the mountain where are the mouths of the volcano, was a great oblong block of marble, 8 and 10 feet high, and 3 or 4 thick; how it came there is unaccountable; for though what Despreaux has said, too poetically, from Longinus, that *Ætna throws from the depth of her abyss stones, rocks, and floods of fire* (which is impossible, on account of the size of its mouths, and of the vast resistance which the air makes to what comes out of them) though this, I say, were true, how could the volcano throw out this piece of marble; all polished? Some edifice must certainly have been there in former times. The temple of Vulcan was on the other side of the mountain.

Our traveller soon found himself at the top of the first mouth of Ætna, from whence he passed with-

out stopping through a plain of sulphur and ashes (a little like that of Solfatara, near Naples) which conducted him to the second and principal of the two openings; and though it was the 19th of July, all the way as he approached this gulph, he found snow under the ashes and sulphur on which he trod, while a few paces farther he saw himself surrounded with flaming exhalations, which rose from place to place, as already particularly described by Silius, Claudian, Severus, Seneca, and some moderns.

The large mouth of Ætna may be about three or four miles in circumference. M. D'Orville and his fellow traveller, fastened to ropes, which two or three men held at some distance for fear of accidents, descended as near as possible to the brink of the gulph; but the small flames and smoke which issued from it on every side, and a greenish sulphur and pumice stones quite black, which covered the margin, would not permit them either to advance farther, or to extend their views to the bottom of this abyss. They only saw distinctly in the middle, a mass of matter which rose in the shape of a cone to the height of above 60 feet, and which towards the base, as far as their sight could reach, might be from six to eight hundred. It was a mass of consumed lava which burnt no longer.

While our travellers had their eyes fixed on this substance, they perceived some motion on the north side, opposite to that on which they stood. Presently the mountain began to send forth smoke and ashes: this eruption was

preceded by a sensible increase in its internal roarings. M. D'Orville was not intimidated by them, he knew that *Ætna* seldom casts forth flames and stones: besides, every thing generally falls back into its vast mouth. In short, the motion did not last; after a moment's dilatation, as if to give it vent, the volcano resumed its tranquillity. But this phænomenon might return, and the wind, which drove the vapours to the north, might, by changing, bring them to the south, in which case our curious observers would have run some risk of being suffocated, as Pliny the elder was by Vesuvius. They therefore went towards their attendants, and immediately got to the top of that enormous heap of lava and stones, of ashes and sulphur, which, having been accumulating for so many ages, have raised mount *Ætna* above all Sicily.

Though few are capable of describing so well as M. D'Orville, the immense and wonderful scene which presented itself to his view the moment that the sun had risen above the horizon, yet it is easy to form from his description some idea of this grand appearance. Our author could scarce tear himself from it. 'No delay,' says he, 'would have seemed long to me, contemplating, as it were at one view, the true situation of so many countries, cities, towns, hills, plains, islands, coasts, and seas; if my companions, fatigued with the journey, had not admonished me, tired as I also was, to descend the mountain.' Once or twice he still delightfully looked about him with eyes full of admi-

ration, in order to imprint the prospect in his mind, and never to forget its inexpressible beauties. 'Once and again, therefore,' says he, 'I enjoyed the unparalleled pleasure of that view, never more to be repeated, and satisfied my eyes and my mind for the remainder of my life.' At last he left it, and having soon descended to the place where was the piece of marble, formerly mentioned, he there remounted, congratulating himself on the good success with which his curiosity had been repaid.

Observations on the singular phænomena of disappearing and re-appearing rivers: with a description of several such rivers in Normandy, and other parts of France. From a memoir by M. Guettard in the last volume of the history of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

THE farther we enquire into the works of nature the more have we reason to admire them. It is remarkable also that our admiration arises more frequently from those effects we have been accustomed to see, than from our not being able to comprehend them. It is very surprising, if we reflect on it, that a river in its course, which is often very extensive, should not meet with spacious soils to swallow up its waters, or gulphs in which they are lost: nevertheless, as there have been hitherto known but a small number of rivers, whose waters thus disappear, this phænomenon has been accounted very extraordinary.

dinary, both by the ancients and moderns. Pliny speaks of it with an energy familiar to him; and Seneca mentions it in his *Quæstiones Naturales*: he even distinguishes these rivers into two sorts, those that are lost by degrees, and those which are swallowed up all at once, or ingulphed: which would make one believe that the ancients had collected some observations concerning them.

But leaving apart what may be wonderful in these rivers, it may be asked, how they are lost? From what particular qualities of the soil over which they flow, and from what situation of the places through which they pass, does this phenomenon arise? Upon this head we find but little light in authors. We might, perhaps, be informed a great deal more, if the observations of the ancients had reached us.

M. Guettard has undertaken to remove part of this obscurity by describing what he has observed in several rivers of Normandy, which are lost and afterwards appear again: these are five in number, viz. the Rille, the Ithon, the Aure, the river of Sap-Audré, and the Drôme.

The three first disappear gradually, and then come in sight again; the fourth loses itself entirely by degrees, but afterwards re-appears; the fifth loses some of its water in its course, and ends by precipitating itself into a cavity, from whence it is never seen to rise again.

What seems to occasion the loss of the Rille, the Ithon, and the Aure, is the nature of the soil through which they pass. M. Guettard has observed that it is

in general porous, and composed of a thick sand, the grains of which are not well compacted together; it sinks suddenly down by its own weight in some places, and there forms great holes; and when the water overflows the meadows, it frequently makes many cavities in several parts of them. If we therefore suppose inequalities in the channels of these rivers, and that there are certain places in which the water stagnates longer than in others, it must there dilute the ground, if we may use that expression; and having carried away the parts which united the grains of sand together, those grains will become afterwards no other than a kind of sieve, through which the waters will filtrate themselves, provided nevertheless that they find passage under ground through which they may run. This conjecture appears to be so well founded, that each of these three rivers loses itself nearly in the same manner, that is, through cavities, which the people of the country call *betoirs*, and which swallow up more or less according to their largeness. M. Guettard, who has carefully examined them, remarks that these *betoirs* are holes in the form of a tunnel, whose diameter and aperture is at least two feet, and sometimes exceeds eleven; and whose depth varies in like manner from one and two feet to five, six, and even twenty. The water generally gets into these cavities, when the river is not very high, making a gurgling noise, and turning round in an eddy. A proof that waters are there filtered and absorbed among the grains of this sharp diluted sand, is, that frequently in a *betoir* two or three

feet deep, and through which a great deal of water is lost, one cannot thrust a stick farther than the surface of its bottom. Wherefore as these betoirs so frequently occur in the bed and banks of the Rille, the Ithon and the Aure, it is not surprising that these rivers should be thus lost. The Rille during the summer season loses almost all its water in the space of two short leagues: the Ithon does very near the same; but M. Guettard observes something curious concerning this river, to wit, that formerly it was not lost, but kept its course without any interruption, as appears by the history of the country: very likely, the mud, which had been collected together in several parts of its channel, might have occasioned the waters remaining in others, and thereby have caused many betoirs. This is the more likely, as the mud having been collected together in the bed of the river Aure, it appears that, in consequence thereof, the cavities were greatly increased, which makes it lose itself much sooner than formerly; however it has been resolved to cleanse its channel to remedy this inconvenience. Besides, possibly an earthquake happening in the country might have caused several subterranean canals through which the waters of the Ithon (which before very likely could not pass through the soil beneath its bed) has forced its way. In effect it appears that a soil's being porous is not sufficient to cause the loss of a river; for if it were, then to do so it would occasion many fens round about, nor would it renew its course after having disappeared

a certain time: it must besides, as we have before said, find ways under ground, through which it may take its course. M. Guettard seems also much inclined to believe that there are, in these parts, subterraneous cavities through which the waters may flow; and in consequence of this he reports a number of facts, all tending to prove the truth of it, or at least to prove that there must be hollow quarries serving for strainers to these waters. Upon which occasion he goes into a discussion of this question: Are there any subterraneous rivers, and is the prepossession of some persons in favour of this particular well founded? He makes appear by several instances which he quotes, and by many reasons which he alleges, that there are at least very great presumptions in favour of this opinion. We are too apt not to look beyond the exterior of things; we feel resistance upon the surface of the earth; when we go deep we often find it compact. It is therefore hard for us to imagine that it can contain subterraneous cavities sufficient to form channels for hidden rivers, or for any considerable body of water; in a word, that it can contain vast caverns; and yet every thing seems to indicate the contrary. A fact that is observed in the betoirs of the rivers concerning which we have spoke, and particularly of the Rille, proves in some measure that there are considerable lakes of water in the mountains which limit its course: this fact is, that in winter the greatest part of their betoirs becomes springs, which supply a-new the river's channel with as much water as they had absorbed from it during the summer. Now

from

from whence can that water come, unless from the reservoirs or lakes that are inclosed in the mountains, which being lower than the river in summer absorb its water, and being higher in winter by occasion of the rain they receive, send it back again in their turn?

M. Guettard strengthens this conjecture by several instances that render it very probable; he remarks at the same time, that this alternate effect of the betoirs swallowing up the water and restoring it again, causes perhaps an invincible obstacle to the restraining of the water within the channel of the river. It has indeed been several times attempted to stop those cavities, but the water returns with such violence in winter, that it generally carries away the materials with which they were stopped.

The river of Sap-Audré is lost in part, as we have before said, in the same manner as the Ithon and the Rille; but there is something more remarkable in it than in those rivers; to wit, that at the extremity of its course, where there is no perceptible cavity, it is, as it were, ingulphed, but without any fall: the water passes between the pebbles, and it is impossible to force a stick into that place any further than into the betoirs of which we have spoke. What makes this river take that subterraneous direction, is an impediment which its stream meets with in that place: it is there stopped by a rising ground six or seven feet high, whose bottom it has very likely undermined, to gain a free passage, not having been able to make its way over it. At some distance from thence it appears

again; but in winter, as there is a greater quantity of water, it passes over that eminence, and keeps an uninterrupted course.

Lastly, the Drôme, after having lost some of its water in its course, vanishes entirely near the pit of Soucy; in that place it meets with a sort of subterraneous cavity near twenty-five feet wide, and more than fifteen deep, where the river is in a manner stopped, and into which it enters, though without any perceptible motion, and never appears again.

We see by these observations of M. Guettard, that rivers which lose themselves are not so few as it is generally imagined, since there are five of them in this part of Normandy, which is but of small extent. One might fancy that this is owing to the nature of the ground; yet M. Guettard observes, that in a part of Lorrain, which likewise is not very extensive, five other rivers are known to lose themselves in the same manner: and without doubt we shall find by new observations that they are much more common; for as we have remarked, it perhaps is not more surprising that a river loses itself, than it is extraordinary that it does not so.

M. Guettard finishes this memoir with some observations upon the Ierre. This river is lost in the same manner as the Rille; and though it is very near Paris, this singularity is unknown to almost every body; were it not for the account of M. l'Abbé le Boeuf, M. Guettard would have been also ignorant of it. And as he thinks the chief objects of a naturalist's observation ought to be the public good, he examines the means

which might be employed to restrain the water of the Ierre. The same object has made him add a description of the manner how the Rhône is lost, or rather how its course is disturbed; for it is now very certain that it does not lose itself, but that its channel is extremely confined, in the place where it was pretended that it lost itself, by two mountains, between whose feet it runs. M. Guettard makes it appear that it might not be impossible to widen that place, and give a sufficient channel to the river; which would render it navigable, and be of vast utility to all the country.

We may add to the above account, that we have in Surrey the river Mole, which rises in Dorking hundred, and, after a considerable course, passes by Witchill, near Dorking; a little beyond which this river hides itself, or is swallowed up in a cavern, at the foot of the hill, from whence Camden says it is called the Swallow; he also takes notice of its running under ground for about two miles, and rising again, and spreading itself into a wide stream. It is also frequently reported that there are several of these dipping rivers in Wales, and others in the southern counties of England.

An account of the Plague at Aleppo. In a letter to the Rev. Charles Lyttelton, L. L. D. Dean of Exeter, now Lord Bishop of Carlisle, and F. R. S. from the Reverend Mr. Thomas Dawes, Chaplain to the Factory at Aleppo. From the Philosophical Transf. for 1763.

“**T**HIS unhappy country for six years past has been in a

very terrible situation, afflicted during the greatest part of that time with many of the Almighty's severest scourges. Its troubles were ushered in by a very sharp winter in 1756-7, which destroyed almost all the fruits of the earth. The cold was so very intense, that the mercury of Fahrenheit's thermometer, exposed a few minutes to the open air, sunk entirely into the ball of the tube. Millions of olive trees that had withstood the severity of fifty winters were blasted in this, and thousands of souls perished merely through cold. The failure of a crop the succeeding harvest occasioned an universal scarcity, which in this country of indolence and oppression (where provision is only made from hand to mouth, and where, literally speaking, no man is sure of reaping what he has sown) soon introduced a famine, with all its attendant miseries. The shocking accounts related to me on this subject would appear fabulous were they not confirmed by numberless eyewitnesses, both Europeans and natives. In many places the inhabitants were driven to such extremities, that women were known to eat their own children as soon as they expired in their arms, for want of nourishment. — Numbers of persons from the mountains and villages adjacent came daily to Aleppo to offer their wives and children to sale for a few dollars, to procure a temporary subsistence for themselves: and hourly might be seen in our streets dogs and human creatures scratching together on the same dunghill, and quarrelling for a bone or piece of carrion to allay their hunger. A pestilence followed close to the heels of the famine,

famine, which lasted the greatest part of 1758, and is supposed to have swept away 50 or 60 thousand souls in this city and its environs. I bless God I was not a spectator of this complicated scene of misery; the very description of it must distress a compassionate disposition; the sight of it must have made an impression on an heart of flint.

I have already acquainted you, in a former letter, with our troubles by earthquakes, &c. of 1759, and 1760, and therefore shall proceed from the date of my last letter. The latter end of March 1761, the plague, which had lain dormant since autumn, made its appearance again in this city, and alarmed us considerably. Though I confess it did not surprize me; so far from not expecting its return, I should have looked on it almost as a miracle if we had escaped, after the little progress it had made among us the preceding year. The infection crept gently and gradually on, confined chiefly to one particular quarter, till the beginning of May, when it began to spread visibly and universally. We shut up on the 27th, and our confinement lasted 96 days. The fury indeed of the contagion did not continue longer than the middle of July, and many of our merchants went abroad with caution early in August; but as our consul had no urgent business to induce him to expose himself to any risk, we remained in close quarters till we could visit our friends with tolerable security. As an addition to the uneasiness of our situation, the earthquakes returned the latter end of April, though with no great violence, except the first shock, and that much less terrible

than those of 1759. We felt six or seven within the week, and four more at long intervals during our imprisonment; but as they were all slight, our apprehensions soon subsided. At our release from confinement the last day of August, we flattered ourselves with the hope of a speedy release from danger: but it pleased God to order it otherwise. In all the plagues with which Aleppo has been visited in this century, the contagion is said to have regularly and constantly ceased in August or September, the hottest months in the year; and it is pretty certain that it disappeared about that time in 1742, 1743, 1744, and 1760; but unfortunately for us that now reside here, the year 1761 has proved an instance of the fallacy of general observations on this dreadful subject; for from the end of March 1761, to the middle of September 1762, scarce a day has passed without some deaths or fresh attacks from the distemper; and though the violence of it ceased in the autumn, yet, I believe, on an average, it was fatal to at least 30 persons in every week, from that time to the end of the winter. In February last we were pretty healthy; hearing but of few accidents, and those in the skirts of the city, we once more began to entertain some faint hopes of a farther exemption, but they were of very short duration; in March the infection spread again, and in April increased with such rapidity, that we were obliged to retire to our close quarters on the 26th of that month. I have now the satisfaction of informing you that, by the blessing of Providence, we are once more safe and at liberty, though after a confinement

ment more tedious, and much more dismal than even that of the last year; we got abroad on the 18th of August, when the burials were reduced to about 20 a day: the infection gradually decreased till the middle of September, since which time we have heard of no accident. May the Almighty graciously be pleased to prevent the return of a distemper, whose very name strikes terror whenever it is mentioned, and is undoubtedly one of the most lamentable misfortunes that mankind is liable to!

I wish I could with any precision determine our loss in the two last summers; but in times of such general horror and confusion, it is in a manner impossible to come at the exact truth. If you enquire of the natives, they swell the account each year from 40 to 60 thousand, and some even higher; but, as the eastern disposition to exaggeration reigns almost universally, little accuracy is to be expected from them. This however is certain, that the mortality of this year has been very considerable, perhaps not much inferior to any in this century. Some of the Europeans have been at no small pains and expence to procure a regular and daily list of the funerals during our confinement, and their account amounts to about twenty thousand, from the 1st of April to the 1st of September this year, and about one third less the preceding summer. This calculation I am inclined to think is pretty right, though there are some strong objections against a probability of being able to procure a just one in such circumstances; for the Turks keep no register of the dead, and have seventy-two different public burial-places in the

seven miles circumference of the city, besides many private ones within the walls. The Christians and Jews, who are supposed to be rather less than a seventh part of the number of inhabitants, have registers, and each nation one burial-place only: their loss this year is about 3,500 in the five months.

I will not shock your compassionate disposition by a detail of the miseries I have been witness to but only mention, that during the months of June and July (in the greatest part of which the burials were from 2 to 300 a day) the noise of men singing before the corpse in the day, and the shrieks of women for the dead both day and night, were seldom out of our ears. Custom soon rendered the first familiar to me, but nothing could reconcile me to the last; and as the heat obliges us to sleep upon the terraces of our houses in the summer, many of my nights rest were disturbed by these alarms of death.

I bless God all my countrymen have been so fortunate as to escape any infection in their houses, though each year four or five Europeans have been carried off, and each year the plague broke out in two houses that join to ours. In one of them this year died a Franciscan priest, after two days illness, whose bed was placed about six yards distant from mine. I believe I was in no great danger, as a wall nine or ten feet high separated our terraces; but had I known his situation I should have moved further off. The year before I was thrown into a very great agitation of mind for a few days, by the death of my laundress's husband;

husband; the very day he died of the plague, my servant had received my linen from his house, and I had carelessly put on some of it even without airing. This accident happened many weeks after we were open, and his illness was industriously kept a secret. The last month of my confinement this year passed very heavily with me indeed; for I found my health much disordered. Whether it proceeded from a cold I caught in my head by sleeping in the open air in some very windy nights, from want of exercise, or from the uneasiness of mind naturally attending our melancholy situation, I know not; but my nerves seemed all relaxed, my spirits in a state of dejection unknown to me before, and my head so heavy and confused that I could neither write nor read for an hour together with application or pleasure. Since our release, I have passed a month at a garden about an hour's ride from the city, for the sake of exercise and fresh air, and find myself much relieved by it, though my head is far from being yet clear.

Among many particulars relating to the present plague that I have heard, the following anecdotes seem somewhat extraordinary; and yet, as they are well attested, I have no reason to doubt of the truth of them, viz. last year as well as this, there has been more than one instance of a woman's being delivered of an infected child, with the plague fores on its body, though the mother herself has been entirely free from the distemper.

A woman that suckled her own child of five months, was seized with a most severe plague, and died

after a week's illness; but the child, though it sucked her and lay in the same bed with her during her whole disorder, escaped the infection. A woman upwards of an hundred years of age was attacked with the plague, and recovered; her two grandchildren of ten and sixteen received the infection from her, and were both carried off by it.

While the plague was making terrible ravage in the island of Cyprus, in the spring of 1760, a woman remarkably sanguine and corpulent, after losing her husband and two children, who died of the plague in her arms, made it her daily employment, from a principle of charity, to attend all her sick neighbours that stood in need of her assistance, and yet escaped the infection. Also a Greek lad made it his business for many months to wait on the sick, to wash, dress, and bury the dead, and yet he remained unhurt. In that contagion ten men were said to die to one woman; but the persons to whom it was almost universally fatal, were youths of both sexes. Many places were left so bare of inhabitants as not to have enough left to gather in the fruits of the earth. It ceased entirely in July 1760, and has not appeared in the island since.

The plague seems this year to have been in a manner general over a great part of the Ottoman empire. We have advice of the havoc it has made at Constantinople, Smyrna, Salonicha, Brusa, Adena, Antioch, Antab, Killis, Oursah, Diarbekir, Mousol, and many other large towns and villages. Scandercon, for the first time, I believe, this century, has suffered

suffered considerably: the other Frank settlements on the sea-coast of Syria have been exempted, except a few accidents at Tripoli, which drove the English consul, Mr. Abbot, into a close retirement for a week or two; but the storm soon blew over.

Account of Giants: from a memoir lately read before the Academy of Sciences of Rouen. By M. Le Cat.

THE bible mentions several races of giants, as the Rephaims, the Anakims, the Emims, the Zonzonims, and others. Profane historians also mention giants: they gave seven feet of height to Hercules their first hero; and in our days we have seen men eight feet high. The giant who was shewn in Rouen, in 1735, measured eight feet some inches. The emperor Maximin was of that size; Skenkius and Platerus, physicians of the last century, saw several of that stature; and Goropius saw a girl who was ten feet high.

The body of Orestes, according to the Greeks, was eleven feet and a half; the giant, Galbara, brought from Arabia to Rome, under Claudius Cæsar, was near ten feet; and the bones of Secondilla and Pusio, keepers of the gardens of Sallust, were but six inches shorter.

Funnam, a Scotsman, who lived in the time of Eugene the second, king of Scotland, measured eleven feet and a half; and Jacob le Maire, in his voyage to the Streights of Magellan, reports, that the 17th of December 1615, they found at Port Desire several graves covered with stones, and having

the curiosity to remove the stones, they discovered human skeletons of ten and eleven feet long,

The chev. Scory, in his voyage to the Pike of Teneriffe, says, that they found in one of the sepulchral caverns of that mountain the head of a Guanche which had 80 teeth, and that the body was not less than 15 feet long,

The giant Ferragus, slain by Orlando, nephew of Charlemain, was 18 feet high.

Rioland, a celebrated anatomist, who wrote in 1614, says, that some years before there was to be seen in the suburbs of St. Germain the tomb of the giant Iforet, who was 20 feet high.

In Rouen, in 1509, in digging in the ditches near the Dominicans, they found a stone tomb containing a skeleton whose skull held a bushel of corn, and whose shin-bone reached up to the girdle of the tallest man there, being about four feet long, and consequently the body must have been seventeen or eighteen feet high. Upon the tomb was a plate of copper, whereon was engraved, "In this tomb lies the noble and puissant Lord, the chevalier Ricon de Vallemont, and his bones." Platerus, a famous physician, declares, that he saw at Lucerne the true human bones of a subject, which must have been at least nineteen feet high.

Valence in Dauphiné boasts of possessing the bones of the giant Bucart, tyrant of the Vivarais, who was slain by an arrow by the count de Cabillon his vassal. The Dominicans had a part of the shin-bone, with the articulation of the knee, and his figure painted in fresco, with an inscription, shewing that this giant was 22 feet and a half

a half high, and that his bones were found in 1705, near the banks of the Morderi, a little river at the foot of the mountain of Crusfol, upon which (tradition says) the giant dwelt.

January 11, 1613, some masons digging near the ruins of a castle in Dauphiné, in a field which (by tradition) had long been called the giant's field, at the depth of 18 feet discovered a brick tomb 30 feet long, 12 feet wide, and 8 feet high; on which was a grey stone, with the words Theutobochus Rex cut thereon. When the tomb was opened, they found a human skeleton entire, 25 feet and a half long, 10 feet wide across the shoulders, and five feet deep from the breast-bone to the back. His teeth were about the size each of an ox's foot, and his shin bone measured four feet.

Near Mazarino, in Sicily, in 1516, was found a giant 30 feet high; his head was the size of an hog's head, and each of his teeth weighed 5 ounces.

Near Palermo, in the valley of Mazara, in Sicily, a skeleton of a giant 30 feet long was found, in the year 1548; and another of 33 feet high, in 1550; and many curious persons have preserved several of these gigantic bones.

The Athenians found near their city two famous skeletons, one of 34 and the other of 36 feet high.

At Totu, in Bohemia, in 758, was found a skeleton, the head of which could scarce be encompassed by the arms of two men together; and whose legs, which they still keep in the cattle of that city, were 26 feet long.

The skull of the giant found in Macedonia, Sept. 1691, held 210 pounds of corn.

The celebrated Sir Hans Sloane who treated this matter very learnedly, does not doubt these facts, but thinks the bones were those of elephants, whales, or other enormous animals.

Elephants bones may be shewn for those of giants; but they can never impose on connoisseurs.

Whales, which, by their immense bulk, are more proper to be substituted for the largest giants, have neither arms nor legs; and the head of that animal hath not the least resemblance with that of a man. If it be true, therefore, that a great number of the gigantic bones which we have mentioned have been seen by anatomists, and have by them been reputed real human bones, the existence of giants is proved.

An account of the extraordinary and sudden growth of a child.

JAMES VIALA, a native of the hamlet of Bouzanquet, in the diocese of Alais, though of a strong constitution, appeared to be knit and stiff in his joints till he was about four years and a half old. During this time nothing farther was remarkable of him than an extraordinary appetite, which was satisfied no otherwise than by giving him plenty of the common aliments of the inhabitants of the country, consisting of rye bread, chesnuts, bacon, and water; but his limbs soon becoming supple and pliable, and his body beginning to expand itself, he grew up in so extraordinary

nary a manner, that at the age of five years he measured four feet three inches; some months after he was four feet eleven inches; and at six, five feet, and bulky in proportion. His growth was so rapid that one might fancy he saw him grow: every month his cloaths required to be made longer and wider; and what was still very extraordinary in his growth, it was not preceded by any sickness, nor accompanied by any pain in the groin or elsewhere, and no complaint was made of any inconveniency but hunger, which the child was very sensible of from one meal to another.

At the age of five years his voice changed, his beard began to appear, and at six he had as much as a man of thirty; in short, all the unquestionable marks of puberty were visible in him. It was not doubted in the country but that this child was, at five years old, or five and a half, in a condition of begetting other children; which induced the rector of the parish to recommend to his mother that she would keep him from too familiar a conversation with children of the other sex. Though his wit was riper than is commonly observable at the age of five or six years, yet its progress was not in proportion to that of his body. His air and manner still retained something childish, though by his bulk and stature he resembled a complete man, which at first sight produced a very singular contrast. However, it might be said that all was uniform in him, and he might be considered as an adult, though still far from being so; his voice was strong and man-

ly, and few heard him speak without some emotion and surprize. His great strength rendered him already fit for the labours of the country. At the age of five years he could carry to a good distance three measures of rye, weighing eighty-four pounds; when turned of six, he could lift up easily on his shoulders, and carry loads of a hundred and fifty pounds weight a good way off; and these exercises were exhibited by him as often as the curious engaged him thereto by some liberality.

Such beginnings made people think that young Viala would soon shoot up into a giant. A mountebank was already soliciting his parents for him, and flattering them with hopes of putting him in a way of making a great fortune. But all these fine hopes suddenly vanished. His legs became crooked, his body shrunk, his strength diminished, and his voice grew sensibly weaker. This sad alteration was attributed to the imprudent trials he was let to make of his strength; perhaps also it was occasioned by nature's suffering in so rapid an extension. He is now just as he was at the age of six or seven years, and in a kind of imbecility. His parents were rather under the middle size, and their growth had nothing particular in it.

Noel Fischet, another swift grower of the human species, began to grow sooner, but not so rapidly, for he was twelve years old before he measured five feet; his signs of puberty were at the age of two years, which makes between them a very remarkable difference; and the slower progress

gress of his growth was perhaps the cause of his not experiencing the bad consequences that attended Viala.

It is astonishing that children of so prodigious and early a growth do not afterwards become giants; yet it is not perhaps so singular, if they have at the same time the signs of puberty. These shew, in all animals, that they are approaching their state of perfection. Thus, when they appear in children at the same time that they shoot up in so extraordinary a manner, they prove perhaps nothing more than a mere rapid expansion, as in hot climates; but not that the individual will be of a gigantic stature. For this purpose it would be necessary that puberty, instead of accompanying this great growth, should not manifest itself till the usual time, or perhaps after.

Remarks on Swallows on the Rhine.
In a letter from Mr. Achard to Mr. Peter Collinson, dated September 7, 1762. From the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1763.

IN the latter end of March I took my passage down the Rhine to Rotterdam: a little below Basil the south bank of the river was very high and steep, of a sandy soil, sixty or eighty feet above the water.

I was surprized at seeing near the top of the cliff some boys tied with ropes hanging down doing something: the singularity of these adventurous boys, and the business they so daringly attempted, made us stop our navigation to enquire

into the meaning of it. The watermen told us they were searching the holes in the cliff for swallows or martins which took refuge in them, and lodged there all the winter, until warm weather, and then they came abroad again.

The boys being let down by their comrades to the holes, put in a long rammer with a screw at the end, such as is used to unload guns, and twisting it about drew out the birds. For a trifle I procured some of them. When I first had them, they seemed stiff and lifeless. I put one in my bosom between my skin and shirt, and laid another on a board, the sun shining full and warm upon it: one or two of my companions did the like.

That in my bosom revived in about a quarter of an hour; feeling it move, I took it out to look at it, and saw it stretch itself on my hand; but perceiving it not sufficiently come to itself, I put it in again. In about another quarter, feeling it flutter pretty briskly, I took it out and admired it. Being now perfectly recovered, before I was aware it took its flight; the covering of the boat prevented me from seeing where it went. The bird on the board, though exposed to a full sun, yet, I presume, from a chilliness in the air, did not revive to be able to fly.

Remarks by Mr. Collinson.

What I collect from this gentleman's relation is, that it was the practice of the boys annually to take these birds, by their apparatus and ready method of doing it; and the frequency of it was no remarkable thing to the watermen.

Next

Next is confirmed my former sentiments, that some of this swallow tribe go away and some stay behind in these dormitories all the winter. If my friend had been particular as to the species, it would have settled that point.

An account of the insect called the Vegetable Fly: by William Watson, M. D. F. R. S. From the Philosophical Transactions for 1763.

THE beginning of last month I received a letter from our learned and ingenious member, Dr. Huxham of Plymouth; in which, among other things, he informed me that he lately had, by permission of commissioner Rogers, obtained a sight of what is called the *vegetable fly*, with the following description of it, both which he had from Mr. Newman, an officer of general Duroure's regiment, who came from the island Dominica. As this description seemed to the doctor exceedingly curious, he has sent it me, exactly transcribed from Mr. Newman's account, and is as follows:

“The vegetable fly is found in the island Dominica, and (excepting that it has no wings) resembles the drone both in size and colour more than any other English insect. In the month of May it buries itself in the earth, and begins to vegetate. By the latter end of July the tree is arrived at its full growth, and resembles a coral branch, and is about three inches high, and bears several little pods, which dropping off be-

come worms, and from thence flies, like the English caterpillar.” An account of this extraordinary production, similar to the above, was given to Dr. Huxham by captain Gascoign, who lately commanded the Dublin man of war which hath been at Dominica. The Doctor subjoins, that possibly I may have heard of this fly or seen it in the collections of the British Museum or Royal Society; but if it is in neither, he believes he can procure it to be sent to the Royal Society.

Though the doctor can by no means think the above relation true in all its circumstances, yet he is persuaded there is something of reality in it, which perhaps further accounts and observations may set in a full and true light, though at present, as represented, it seems quite repugnant to the usual order of nature.

As I had never seen this production myself, but had been informed that doctor Hill had had the examination of some of them, I wrote to that gentleman to desire to be informed of the result of his inquiries; to which he very obligingly sent me the following answer:

“When Colonel Melvil brought these flies from Guadeloupe, lord Bute sent me the box of them to examine. The result was this: There is in Martinique a fungus of the clavaria kind, different in species from those hitherto known. It produces soboles from its sides, I call it therefore *Clavaria sobolifera*. It grows on putrid animal bodies, as our fungus ex pede equino, from the dead horse's hoof.

The cicada is common in Martinique;

tinique; and in its nympha state, in which the old authors call it tettigometra, it buries itself under dead leaves to wait its change; and when the season is unfavourable, many perish. The seeds of the clavaria find a proper bed on this dead insect, and grow.

The tettigometra is among the cicadæ in the British Museum; the clavaria is just now known.

This you may be assured is the fact, and all the fact; though the untaught inhabitants suppose a fly to vegetate; and though there exists a Spanish drawing of the plant's growing into a trifoliate tree; and it has been figured with the creature flying with this tree upon its back.

So wild are the imaginations of man! so chaste and uniform is nature!"

Commissioner Rogers, at Dr. Huxham's desire, has presented this extraordinary production to the Royal Society, and it now lies before you.

A careful examination of it seems to confirm to me at least Dr. Hill's opinion of the manner of this phenomenon's being produced.

The ingenious Mr. Edwards has taken notice of this extraordinary production in his Gleanings of natural history, and has given us a figure of it in that elegant work.

There is in the British Museum, among the cicadæ, one nearly resembling the animal part of the production before you; but it came from the East-Indies. There is likewise, from the West-Indies, in its perfect or winged state, the insect of which this produc-

tion is believed to be the nympha.

Nov. 15, 1763.

An account of a remarkable Fish, taken in King Road, near Bristol. In a letter from Mr. James Ferguson to Thomas Birch, D. D. Secretary to the Royal Society. From the Philosophical Transactions for 1763.

Bristol, May 5, 1763.

THE length of the fish is four feet nine inches, and its thickness where greatest, or in the middle, about 15 inches. The mouth is a foot in width, and of a squarish form: it has three rows of sharp small teeth very irregularly set, and at some distance from each other: it has no tongue nor narrow gullet, but is all the way down, as far as one can see, like a great hollow tube: in the back of the mouth within there are two openings like nostrils; and about nine inches below the jaw, and under these openings, are two large knobs, from which proceed several short teeth; a little below which, on the breast side, is another knob with such teeth.—On each side within, and about a foot below the jaws, there are three cross ribs somewhat resembling the straight bars of a chimney grate, about an inch distant from each other; through which we see into a great cavity within the skin, towards the breast; and under the skin, these cavities are kept distended by longitudinal ribs, plain to the touch on the outside. I put my arm down through the mouth quite to my shoulder, but could feel nothing

nothing in the way; so that its heart, stomach, and bowels must lie in a very little compass near its tail, the body thereabout being very small.

From the neck proceed two long horns, hard and very elastic, not jointed by rings as in lobsters; and on each side of the back there are two considerable sharp-edged risings of a black and long substance. Between each eye and the breast there is a cavity somewhat like the inside of a human ear, but it doth not penetrate to the inside. From each shoulder proceeds a strong muscular fin, close by which, towards the breast, is an opening, through which one may thrust his hand and arm quite up through the mouth; and between these fins proceed from the breast two short paws, somewhat like the fore half of a human foot, with five toes joined together, having the appearance of nails. Near the tail are two large fins, one on the back, the other under the belly. The skin is of a dark brown colour, but darker spotted in several places, and entirely without scales.

Nature the best mistress in Husbandry.

WHoever applies himself to the study of plants will be soon agreeably surprized with the capacious field it opens for enquiry, where the human mind may range at large, and every day make fresh discoveries equally useful and entertaining. If, for instance, we attentively consider the circumstances in which particular ve-

getables are spontaneously produced, we shall immediately discover a sure and successful method of cultivating them by art. Linnæus justly observes, in a curious paper upon this subject, in the first volume of the Swedish Acts, that the directions given in many books of gardening are founded merely on random practice; it being from wild plants alone that a rational method of culture can be deduced. He adds, that all plants grow somewhere wild, and that the business of art is to imitate their natural climate, or the joint concurrence of earth, air, water, and heat.

The earths or soils in which vegetables grow are far from being such simple bodies, as most people apprehend. They are compounded of all the kinds of mineral earths, together with that into which animal and vegetable substances themselves are resolved by putrefaction, and blended together in various proportions. They may, however, be commodiously ranged, in regard to the present enquiry, into four classes, according to the particular ingredient which prevails in the composition: clayey, chalky, sandy, including those which abound either with sand itself, or with such other earthy or stony particles, as do not in the least imbibe, or are affected by water; and black vegetable and animal mold. Each of these soils produces plants peculiar to itself, and which degenerate or perish in others. It is on sandy hills that the fir and other resinous trees attain to their vigour, and shed the turpentine and balsams: the galleopfes,

galeopses, as the above-mentioned author observes, are the natural growth of black earth, and die in sand, whilst the ornithopos flourishes in sand, and perishes in a black mould.

Under air may be included the vicissitudes of solar light diffused throughout the atmosphere; which light seems to affect vegetables independently of heat, and in a manner hitherto inexplicable. All plants grow weak and slender in the confined air of hot-houses, and much more so if the solar light is excluded. Plants, whose flowers are naturally the most odoriferous, if raised in a perfectly dark place, with all the advantages of warmth, moisture, &c. either do not flower at all, or bring forth flowers which have hardly any smell. The jessamine-tree, whilst it covers the outside of a wall with its fragrant flowers, is not observed to produce a single one upon such branches as have forced their way within, even into a warm, an airy, and a light room. High hills, in different parts of the world, the Lapland crags, the Alps, Olympus, and Ararat, bring forth similar plants, many of which are never met with in lower grounds. These plants grow extremely quick, nature making amends for their shortness of summer by a continual agitation and renewal of air: they are small, but loaded with innumerable seeds. Removed into gardens, they grow more slowly to a larger size, but abort or produce little fruit.

River, stagnant, spring, and sea-waters, and watery and dry soils, have each their peculiar plants; succulent plants rot from the quan-

tity of water which many others require. It is observable, however, that land as well as aquatic vegetables may be raised and supported for a length of time, by placing the little roots, washed clean from the earth, in water alone. It seems as if water and air, or the contents of waters, and of the atmosphere, were universally the immediate matter which affords aliment to vegetables; as if the earth served only as a matrix for vegetables to keep them firm, and to preserve moisture about the roots; as if the difference of soils consisted wholly in their being more or less soft or compact, so as to be easily or difficultly penetrated by the tender roots, and in their more or less readily imbibing and effectually retaining water. Thus clay absorbs water very slowly and difficultly, its particles expanding in proportion as they are moistened, so as to prevent the further progress of the liquor: if water be poured into a cavity made in a lump of dry clay, great part of it evaporates without being soaked in. Chalk, on the other hand, very quickly imbibes water, transmits it to every part of the mass, and does not easily let it go; whilst sand suffers it to percolate instantaneously through the interstices of the grains, without imbibing any into its substance.

With regard to heat, the plants of the torrid zone require, according to Linnæus, between the fiftieth and sixtieth degree of Fahrenheit's thermometer; those of the temperately warm, as the southern parts of Europe, the Cape, Japan, China, between the thirtieth and fortieth; those of the

temperately cold, not above thirty-eight. These seem to be nearly the mean degrees of heat of the respective climates. The plants of cold climates will not bear the heat of warm ones, any more than those of the warm can support the cold: some of the Cape plants in the heat of the torrid zone grew at first amazingly, but soon after they lost their leaves, and were with difficulty kept alive. In this, however, there is a considerable latitude; plants may be raised in a climate not their own, provided the difference is not very great; by degrees they become as it were naturalized to it; if once they have produced seeds, these seeds are much less apt to miscarry, and produce hardier plants than such as are brought immediately from their native country. Tobacco, from seeds of our own growth, ripens a month sooner than such as is raised from foreign seeds.

It was by following nature, that the ingenious botanist above-mentioned has been so successful in bringing up the vast variety of plants that have fallen under his care. The *rubus caule unifloro foliis ternatis* was some time ago, he tells us, thought incapable of being raised about Stockholm, till attention to its natural climate taught to keep it covered with snow during the winter, and great part of the spring. Musa, the most specious plant in nature, had stood near an hundred years in the Dutch botanic garden, and could not be made to blow: on considering that its native country is Surinam, where the weather is dry for one half year, and rainy the next, it was kept long without water, and afterwards

kept watered abundantly: it now flowered and perfected its fruit; and by the same management, another musa was made to flower the next year.

He observes, that we can easily imitate nature in regard to earth, water, and the degree of heat; and wishes he could equally imitate her in the renewals and agitations of the air. This also it is in the power of art to effect. The principle that warm air ascends above cold, affords means of obtaining constant changes and successions of air, wherever there is warmth and cold.

Dr. Hales has applied this principle to the improvement of common hot-beds. If an aperture is made in the top of one end of the frame, and at the bottom of the other, and a descending pipe inserted into this last, a stream of fresh air will pass continually over the surface of the bed. This air may be warmed before its admission, by carrying the pipe that conveys it through the hot dung.

What is here effected by the heat of dung, may be done in hot-houses by that of fire. A pipe, heated by the fire, and reaching to a considerable height in the house, will occasion a continual circulation of the air in the house, that which is warmed in the pipe ascending, whilst the colder air at the bottom comes in to supply its place, and receiving warmth from the tube, ascends in like manner, and this uninterruptedly whilst the heat continues. If the lower part of the pipe is made to communicate with the external air, it will bring in fresh. If the fire-place opens immediately, or by a pipe,

a pipe, into the house, the colder part of the air at the bottom will pass off through the fire, for fire requires a large quantity of air for its support, whilst fresh air is brought in and warmed by the other pipe.

Stronger and more sudden agitations of air, sufficient to raise a moderate wind among the plants, may be obtained occasionally by mechanic impulse. I have made the outer and inner doors of the room, with a proper cavity between, serve for a ventilator, the check which bounds the cavity on one side being made of a circular curvature, that the inner door, in its motion backwards and forwards, may sit close to it all the way. The inner door is furnished with a valve at bottom, which on pulling the door backwards, receives a part of the air of the house into the cavity, and with another at the top by which on pushing the door forwards, the air is forced out again with strength sufficient to give a considerable shake to almost all the plants in a large hot-house. The outer door is also furnished with valves, through which, by a few reciprocations of the inner door, the external air is plentifully pumped in, or the internal air driven out, all the valves being made to open occasionally, outwards or inwards, and secured on either side with buttons.

The existence of the Fountain tree in the Canary islands ascertained, and its effects accounted for. — From Glass's history of these islands.

THERE are only three fountains of water in the whole

island of Hierro, wherein the fountain tree grows. One of these fountains is called Acoff, which, in the language of the ancient inhabitants, signifies river; a name, however, which does not seem to have been given it on account of its yielding much water, for in that respect it hardly deserves the name of a fountain. More to the northward is another called Hapio; and in the middle of the island is a spring yielding a stream about the thickness of a man's finger. This last was discovered in the year 1565, and is called the fountain of Anton Hernandez. On account of the scarcity of water, the sheep, goats, and swine here do not drink in the summer, but are taught to dig up the roots of fern, and chew them to quench their thirst. The great cattle are watered at those fountains, and at a place where water distils from the leaves of a tree. Many writers have made mention of this famous tree, some in such a manner as to make it appear miraculous: others again deny the existence of any such tree, among whom is father Feyjoo, a modern Spanish author, in his *Theatro Critico*. But he, and those who agree with him in this matter, are as much mistaken as they who would make it appear to be miraculous. This is the only island of all the Canaries, which I have not been in; but I have sailed with natives of Hierro, who, when questioned about the existence of this tree, answered in the affirmative.

The author of the history of the discovery and conquest has given us a particular account of it, which I shall here relate at large.

“ The district in which this tree stands is called Tigulahe, near to which, and in the cliff or steep rocky ascent, that surrounds the whole island, is a narrow gutter or gulley, which commences at the sea, and continues to the summit of the cliff, where it joins or coincides with a valley, which is terminated by the steep front of a rock. On the top of this rock grows a tree called in the language of the ancient inhabitants, Garfe, Sacred or Holy Tree, which for many years has been preserved sound, entire, and fresh. Its leaves constantly distil such a quantity of water as is sufficient to furnish drink to every living creature in Hierro; nature having provided this remedy for the drought of the island. It is situated about a league and a half from the sea. Nobody knows of what species it is, only that it is called Til. It is distinct from other trees, and stands by itself; the circumference of the trunk is about twelve spans, the diameter four, and in height from the ground to the top of the highest branch, forty spans; the circumference of all the branches together is one hundred and twenty feet. The branches are thick and extended; the lowest commence about the height of an ell from the ground. Its fruit resembles the acorn, and tastes something like the kernel of a pine-apple, but is softer and more aromatic. The leaves of this tree resemble those of the laurel, but are larger, wider, and more curved; they come forth in a perpetual succession, so that the tree always remains green. Near to it grows a thorn, which fastens on many of its branches

and interweaves with them; and at a small distance from the Garfe are some beech trees, bresos, and thorns. On the north side of the trunk are two large tanks or cisterns of rough stone, or rather one cistern divided, each half being twenty feet square, and sixteen spans in depth. One of these contains water for the drinking of the inhabitants, and the other that which they use for their cattle, washing, and such-like purposes. Every morning, near this part of the island, a cloud or mist arises from the sea, which the south and easterly winds force against the fore-mentioned steep cliff; so that the cloud having no vent but by the gutter, gradually ascends it, and from thence advances slowly to the extremity of the valley, where it is stopped and checked by the front of the rock which terminates the valley, and then rests upon the thick leaves and wide-spreading branches of the tree, from whence it distils in drops during the remainder of the day, until it is at length exhausted, in the same manner that we see water drip from the leaves of trees, after a heavy shower of rain. This distillation is not peculiar to the Garfe, or Til, for the bresos, which grow near it, likewise drop water; but their leaves being but few and narrow, the quantity is so trifling, that though the natives save some of it, yet they make little or no account of any but what distils from the Til, which, together with the water of some fountains, and what is saved in the winter season, is sufficient to serve them and their flocks. This tree yields most water in those years when the

Levant

Levant or easterly winds have prevailed for a continuance; for by these winds only the clouds or mists are drawn hither from the sea. A person lives on the spot near which this tree grows, who is appointed by the council to take care of it and its water, and is allowed a house to live in, with a certain salary. He every day distributes to each family of the district seven pots or vessels full of water, besides what he gives to the principal people of the island."

Whether the tree which yields water at this present time be the same as that mentioned in the above description, I cannot pretend to determine; but it is probable there has been a succession of them; for Pliny, describing the Fortunate island, says, "In the mountains of Ombrion are trees resembling the plant *Ferula*, from which water may be procured by pressure. What comes from the black kind is bitter, but that which the white yields is sweet and potable."

Trees yielding water are not peculiar to the island of Hierro, for travellers inform us of one of the same kind on the island of St. Thomas, in the bight or gulph of Guiney. In Cockburn's voyages we find the following account of a dropping tree, near the mountains of Vera Paz, in America.

"On the morning of the fourth day we came out on a large plain, where were great numbers of fine deer, and in the middle stood a tree of unusual size, spreading its branches over a vast compass of ground. Curiosity led us up to it; we had perceived, at some distance off, the ground about it to be wet, at which we began to

be somewhat surprized, as well knowing there had no rain fallen for near six months past, according to the certain course of the season in that latitude; that it was impossible to be occasioned by the fall of dew on the tree, we were convinced, by the sun's having power to exhale away all moisture of that nature a few minutes after its rising. At last, to our great amazement as well as joy, we saw water dropping, or as it were distilling, fast from the end of every leaf of this wonderful (nor had it been amiss if I had said miraculous) tree; at least it was so with respect to us, who had been labouring four days through extreme heat, without receiving the least moisture, and were now almost expiring for the want of it.

We could not help looking on this as liquor sent from heaven to comfort us under great extremity. We caught what we could of it in our hands, and drank very plentifully of it, and liked it so well, that we could hardly prevail with ourselves to give over. A matter of this nature could not but excite us to make the strictest observations concerning it, and accordingly we staid under the tree near three hours, and found we could not fathom its body in five times. We observed the soil where it grew to be very stony; and upon the nicest enquiry we could afterwards make, both of the natives of the country and the Spanish inhabitants, we could not learn there was any such tree known throughout New Spain, nor perhaps all America over; but I do not relate this as a prodigy

in nature, because I am not philosopher enough to ascribe any natural cause for it: the learned may perhaps give substantial reasons in nature for what appeared to us a great and marvellous secret."

Account of a plant's distilling Quick-silver: in a letter from Philip Thicknesse, Esq; to Mr. Robert Davis.

S I R,

Strange as the following account may appear to every reader, it is nevertheless true; and if any persons doubt the fact, after considering the following relation, you may refer them to me, or any other of the gentlemen whose names I have made known to you for that purpose.

About fourteen years ago a particular friend of mine, who had a garden near James-street, Bedford-row, was informed by his servant that a chrysanthemum (a flowering plant commonly known) in the garden, appeared to have very small particles of quicksilver spread over the whole surface of its leaves and stalks. My friend (who is not apt to let the slightest information escape him, and by that means wants very little) examined this plant with all the attention due to so extraordinary a production, and was thoroughly convinced of the fact: every leaf and stalk had a multitude of small globules of quicksilver adhering thereto, and which seemed to (and no doubt did) issue from the perspiratory ducts of the plant.

The fact being ascertained, my friend suffered several ingenious men

of his acquaintance to examine the plant, and enquire into the cause; who were all satisfied of this extraordinary production, though none could account for it: and it remains a mystery to this day.

My friend, and other persons who examined it, frequently collected a great part of the quicksilver from several of the branches by striking them, and catching the globules or small drops which instantly united, into the hand, and left no doubt that it was pure crude quicksilver. And the next day, after thus gathering it, it gave fresh proofs of its limbetic quality; for not only the surface would be again powdered over, but in the hollow of the leaves, and particularly in those formed by the insertion of the footstalks, small drops also would be formed by the conflux of the small particles continually emitted.

In this state it continued about three weeks or a month, till the frost killed it, together with the rest of its species.

My friend, knowing his servant to be ingenious, took every precaution to find out whether he watered the chrysanthemum with any solution of quicksilver, or used any art, or whether it really was the production of chance; and he was thoroughly convinced of the latter; for had the servant known such a secret he could have repeated it another year, and thereby have raised a large sum of money by exposing such a curiosity to the public.

The only tolerable reason, therefore, which can be assigned towards leading to a discovery, is, that as my friend frequently amused himself with a variety of chymical experi-

experiments (among which there were some wherein quicksilver was employed in various forms) the refuse of it, together with the washings of the glasses and crucibles used in these experiments, were thrown out near the place where this chrysanthemum grew, and the grateful plant undertook spontaneously to restore again to its master in this unheard of manner, and in purity too, what it had received in some corrupt state. On the other hand my friend made many experiments on the same kind of plants, all which either died or failed of the wished for effect.

. Perhaps this account may lead some of your readers to pursue this matter further; many great discoveries have been made by chance: but as the story borders on the marvellous, you are at liberty either to print or tell the name of,

Sir,

Your humble servant,

Dec. 17, PHILIP THICKNESSE.
1763.

P. S. If, as I have heard asserted, it be true, that men who have taken calomel in great quantities, have with a microscope perceived it to issue through the pores of the skin, it cannot be more extraordinary than that a plant should be operated on in the same manner.

History of a new Metal known by the name of White Gold or Platina; by Mess. Macquer and Baumé. Extracted from the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1758, published last year.

There is no mention made of this metal in history before

the beginning of the present century. This however is no proof that it was altogether unknown in former times, though it may be taken for granted that no use was made of it; and the great difficulty there still subsists of fluxing it, adds to the probability of this opinion. How long soever it may be since this metal was first discovered, its properties are at this time but new truths, of which it is very likely that a considerable number lie still concealed; and that those already found out might turn to advantage by being re-examined and confirmed by new experiments.

The first who searched into the nature of platina was Mr. Charles Wood, an English metallurgist; whose operations on this subject are recorded in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1750; since which time Mr. Scheffer and Dr. Lewis have directed their enquiries to the same object. The result of the trials of the former are printed in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sweden for the year 1751, and of the latter in the Philosophical Transactions for 1754. These are the principal works concerning this subject which appeared abroad before Mr. Macquer's, of which we shall here give an account: we should observe, however, that Mr. Margraaf has likewise read a memoir upon it to the academy of Berlin; but his researches were not made public before Mr. Macquer had completed his enquiries.

The platina on which Mr. Macquer made his experiments, has, like that which was examined by the other chymists, the following characters; it is in small and pretty smooth grains, most of them resembling, as to their figure, pyrami-

dal triangles with blunted points; their colours not much unlike that of coarse filings of unruſted iron, but approaching nearer to a ſilvery whiteness after being soaked in an acid, or heated to a high degree. Mr. Macquer ſuppoſes, with great probability, that the metal owes its name to this laſt property, as derived from the word *plata*, which in Spaniſh ſignifies ſilver.

The name of *white gold*, which has likewiſe been given to this metal, ariſes out of certain properties which alſo belong to gold; ſuch as to be nearly of the ſame ſpecific gravity as gold; to reſiſt, like that, the action of ſulphur, lead, anti-mony, the royal cement, and all pure acids; and to ſubmit, like gold, to no ſolvent but *aqua regia*, and *hepar ſulphuris*.

None of the platina that has been hitherto examined is perfectly homogeneous. Gold is ſometimes found in it, as in that which Mr. Macquer examined. The ſubſtance moſt frequently met with among it, and in the greateſt quantity, is a ſmall black ſand, brilliant and very pointed, which the load-ſtone attracts as readily as iron.

In order to examine the ductility and other properties of platina, it was neceſſary to procure an ingot of it of a proper ſize; but the ſucceſſleſs attempts that had till then been made to flux it, left but little hopes of any ſuch thing. True it is, that there might ſtill be ways of increaſing the activity of fire, beyond what the chymiſts had yet been able to do, and this conſideration determined Mr. Macquer to have recourſe to new expedients. The wind-furnace and the forge had proved uſeleſs, though the fire had been kept up fifty hours.

A fire capable of fuſing the mixtures of Mr. Pott, in his Litho-geognoſy, and ſaid to have afforded him the hardeſt and the leaſt brittle glaſs, would not fuſe platina, but only agglutinate its grains together. This experiment produced ſome other phænomena, amongſt which was one hitherto unobſerved, viz, an actual increaſe of the weight of the platina on which the experiment was made, no leſs than fourteen grains to an ounce. This platina, thus increaſed in weight, was ſubjected to a ſecond trial, which produced a ſecond increaſe; leſs indeed, but yet ſenſible. The augmentation Mr. Macquer aſcribes to a calcination of ſome ſubſtance of a different nature from the platina, intermixed with it; for it is well known that there are ſome ſubſtances, as vitriol, anti-mony, &c. whoſe weight is increaſed by calcination.

The platina was expoſed to the heat of the glaſs-houſes at Sevres for five days and nights together, without any other alteration of it than ſuch as above mentioned.

After ſuch ſort of trials, it was not to be expected to gain any new diſcovery by means of ſuch furnaces as are employed in chymical operations; but a thirſt of knowledge animates the imagination and furniſhes contrivances. Mr. Macquer found the means of producing, in the forge of his own elaboratory, a heat far ſtronger than what has been known to be done. To this end he added two large pair of double bellows, to that of the forge, and concentrated their action in one focus. This diſpoſition greatly increaſed the heat; in leſs than an hour and a quarter

quarter the lining of the furnace melted all down, and formed masses of glass which choaked the noses of the bellows; the crucible was also vitrified, but the obstinate platina exhibited only some grains perfectly round, as white as silver, which seemed to have undergone a perfect fusion; yet a slight stroke of a hammer reduced them to powder.

After having in vain employed the several means we have recited, there still remained one which promised some degree of hope, and the rather worth trying, as it had never been made use of by any chymist in the examination of platina; this was to expose the platina to the focus of a good burning speculum.

The speculum Mr. Macquer used, was of glass, its diameter two-and-twenty inches, and the distance of its focus twenty-eight inches. In half a minute it melted a gun-flint, and changed it into transparent glass; vitrified Hessian crucibles, and fragments of glass-house pots in three or four seconds; made forged iron fume, melt, boil, and turn to a vitrescent scoria in an instant: nay, melted the gypseous stones, which Mr. Pott seems to regard as unfusible.

These effects, with several others, invited Mr. Macquer to submit platina to such an agent; he did so, and here follows the result.

The platina he used is that said above to have been exposed to a glass-house fire, and whose grains were agglutinated together; as they were then in a solid mass, they could be the more conveniently exposed to the focus by holding

the lump between a pair of pincers; besides, the surface of this lump being tarnished and brown, it was thereby the fitter to absorb the solar rays; whereas the metallic brilliancy, which these grains naturally have when separate, promised less success.

The platina thus exposed to the focus of the speculum, first turned to a blueish white, casting off by fits very lively sparks, and diffusing a very sensible fume; finally, in about a minute it was in a true fusion; but with this particular, that the melted parts did not drop to the ground, but attached themselves to those next the limits of the field of the focus.

Those melted parts shone like silver, and their surface was rounded, bright, and polished. Being hammered on a small steel anvil, they were flatted to a thin plate without any cracking; in a word, they afforded sufficient marks of malleability, not only far beyond what they had before the fusion, but even such as gave hopes that they might be spread as thin as the leaves of gold or silver.

Mr. Macquer having examined the properties which the action of fire discovers in platina, submitted this metal to the action of other solvents. Of all the acid menstruums *aqua regalis* alone proved a solvent of platina, at least whilst it remained in its natural state.

This dissolution produces various phenomena. It requires a great quantity of *aqua regalis*, and is effected much more easily by a sand heat than without it. Mr. Macquer takes notice that the precipitates of platina made with volatile and fixed alkalis, have not that

that red colour which Dr. Lewis attributes to them in general, except when no more of those alkalis is used than what is barely sufficient to saturate the acid; which observation led him to every natural explanation of the colour the precipitate assumes in the case we have been speaking of.

It has been long known in chymistry, that precipitates always carry down along with them part of the dissolvent and of the precipitant: this truth, which is abundantly sensible in the precipitate of platina, afforded Mr. Macquer the means of accounting for several phænomena which Dr. Lewis had noticed in the precipitation of platina, though that learned chymist has not explained them.

The red precipitate of platina, mixed with a flux composed of calcined borax, cream of tartar, and white glass, after being exposed to a forge heat, produced a lump of the complexion of platina, with all the resemblance of a metal that had been well melted. Although this lump had not the satisfactory tokens of malleability, yet there is room to believe that the fusion had not been sufficiently perfect: this is a point which Mr. Macquer intends to examine hereafter, as also the vitrescent matter, into which the precipitate of platina was converted, after the operation of the speculum.

The cupellation of platina by lead is also one of the objects which have been examined by Mr. Lewis, and wherein Mr. Macquer proposed to surmount the difficulties which that ingenious gentleman seems to have met with: this operation gave Mr. Macquer a re-

sult which at first seemed no more successful than that of Dr. Lewis; but a repeated examination opened to him very different properties; the platina, instead of increasing in weight, as Dr. Lewis had observed, was found to have lost a sixteenth part; it was moreover very extensible under the hammer. The same platina cupelled, and then dissolved in *aqua regalis*, shewed not the least marks of any remaining lead.

The whole of Mr. Macquer's observations, compared with what other chymists have delivered about this metal, seems to establish the following matters of fact. That platina is a third perfect metal, as fixed, as indestructible, as unalterable, as gold and silver; that it is not absolutely unfusible; that there is even room to hope, that by mixing it with destructive metals, and employing a sufficiently durable and intense heat, it may be fluxed in large furnaces. The attempts that have hitherto, or may be hereafter made with this view, cannot be too much applauded; it is easy to apprehend of how great utility in arts a metal may prove which resists the action of air, water, fire, sulphur, acids, and the voracious metals, and had the strength and hardness of iron combined with all these qualities. Wise motives have determined the Spanish ministry to interdict the working of their platina mines, and to prohibit the commerce of it; however, the lights that chymistry has already let us into concerning this metal, may make us easy as to any abuses that may be made of it, and afford hopes, that it may in due time be
the

the more easily procured, and farther experiments made upon it.

Instance of the regeneration of metals, from the last volume of the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

THE question concerning the regeneration of metals in mines, is one of the most important points of natural philosophy. Some metallurgists are of opinion that they are regenerated; others, that they are not. In the copper-mine of Cheisy, near St. Bel, in the province of Lyonnois, there is found a metallic vegetation which appears greatly in favour of the affirmative. In this mine is a cavern or gallery upwards of two hundred feet long: it is a work of the Romans; and the pieces of wood that serve to sustain the roof, are still in a pretty good condition. The copper of this mine, probably dissolved by some vitriolic acid,

had ascended and vegetated along those pieces of oak-wood (the wood having served as a precipitant) and formed shrubs on them. What seems very singular, is, that all those shrubs have resumed with time the metallic form. M. Helot, to whom we are indebted for this observation, presented to the Academy a piece of this wood, which had been sent to him from Cheisy. The metallic vegetation is seen plainly on it, and it is now kept in the cabinet of the king's garden, as a very curious article of natural history.

How many questions of natural philosophy, on which we are now divided in opinion, would have been solved if our observations were of a more ancient date! Let us therefore endeavour to be more serviceable to posterity than the ancients have been to us; and, if we cannot transmit to them a true picture of this world, let us at least, if possible, leave behind us the necessary materials for forming it.

USEFUL PROJECTS.

An account of the Spanish fishery (hitherto unnoticed by other nations) on the coast of Barbary. —From Mr. Glass's history of the Canary Islands.

THE number of vessels employed in this fishery amount to about 30; they are from 15 to 50 tons burthen; the smallest carry 5 men, and the largest 30. They are all built in the islands, and navigated by the natives. Two of these belong to the island of Palma, four to Teneriffe, and the rest to Canaria. Porto de Luz, in that island, is the place from whence they sail for the coast.

The method of fitting out a bark for the fishery is this: the owners furnish a vessel for the voyage, and put on board her a quantity of salt sufficient to cure the fish, with bread enough to serve the crew for the whole voyage. Each man carries his own fishing tackle, which consists of a few lines, hooks, a little brass-wire, a knife for cutting open the fish, and one or two stout fishing rods. If any of the crew carry wine, brandy, oil, vinegar, pepper, onions, &c. it must be at his own expence, for the owners furnish no provision but bread. The net sum arising from the sale of the fish, after deducting the expence of the salt and bread before mentioned, is divided into shares, a certain number of which are allowed to the owners for their expence in fitting out the vessel;

the rest are divided among the crew according to their merit: an able fisherman has one share; a boy, landman, or one not experienced in the fishery, half a share, or a quarter, according to his abilities. The patron, or master of the bark, shares equally with the able fishermen, and the owners allow him also one share out of their's for his trouble in taking care of the bark.

The place on the coast of Barbary where they go to fish, is according to the season of the year. This fishery is bounded on the north by the southern extremity of Mount Atlas, or by the latitude of 29 degrees north; and on the south by Cape Blanco, in the latitude of 20 degrees 30 minutes north: the whole length of the sea-coast so bounded is about 600 miles. In all this extensive tract there is no town, village, or settled habitation: the few wandering Arabs who frequent this part of the world live in tents, and have neither boats, barks, nor canoes: the king of Morroco's cruizers never venture so far to the southward; for were they to attempt such a thing, it is not probable they would be able to find the way back to their own country, so that the Canarians have nothing to fear from that quarter. In the spring season the fishermen go to the coast to the northward, but in the autumn and winter to the southward; because in the spring the fish frequent the coasts to the northward, and afterwards

wards go gradually along the shore to the southward.

The first thing the fishermen set about when they arrive on the coast, is to catch bait; this is done in the same manner as we do trouts with a fly, only with this difference, that the rod is thrice as thick as ours, and not tapered away so much towards the point. The line is made of six small brass wires, twisted together, the hook is above five inches long, and is not bearded; the shaft is leaded so as it may lie horizontally on the surface of the water; and the hook is covered with a fish's skin, except from where it bends, to the point; then getting within a quarter or half a mile of the shore, they carry so much sail as to cause the bark to run at the rate of four miles an hour, when two or three men throw their lines over the stern, and let the hooks drag along the surface of the water: the fish, taking the hooks for small fish, snap at them, and, when hooked, the fishermen swing them into the barks with their rods. The Canarians call these fish *tassarte*: they have no scales, and are shaped like mackarel, but as large as salmon; they are exceeding voracious, and swallow all the hook, notwithstanding its being so large. If it was bearded, there could be no such thing as extracting it without cutting open the fish. I have seen three men in the stern of a bark catch an hundred and fifty *tassarte* in half an hour. It sometimes happens that a bark will complete her lading in these fish only. Another sort of fish, which these people call *anhoua*, is taken in the same manner; this is something bigger than a large mackarel, and

serves as well as the *tassarte* for bait. There is another sort of bait called *cavallos*, or little horse mackarel, but something more flat and broad; it is about a span long, and is caught with an angling rod and line with a very small hook, baited with almost any thing that comes to hand. When a bark has got a sufficient stock of bait, she leaves her boat, with five or six men, near the shore, to catch *tassarte* and *anhoua*, and runs out to sea a good distance off, until she gets into fifteen, twenty, thirty, forty, or perhaps fifty or sixty fathoms depth of water, where she anchors, and all the crew heave their lines and hooks overboard, baited with *tassarte*, *anhoua*, &c. and fish for *samas*, or bream as we call them, and for *cherney*, or cod. The lines are all leaded, in order to cause the hooks to sink near to the bottom of the sea, where these fish swim. When a bark is so fortunate as to meet with fine weather, and is well provided with bait, she will be able to complete her cargo in four days. This I have often had opportunity to observe. But as the trade or north-east winds commonly blow fresh on that coast, the barks only anchor in the offing about mid-day, when there is a lull between the land and sea breeze; and when this last-mentioned wind begins to blow fresh, they weigh their anchors, stand in to shore, and come to an anchor in some bay, or under a head-land, and then the crew fall to work, clean and salt the fish which they caught that day. By the time this is done, it is about five or six o'clock in the evening, when they go to dinner or supper, for they make but one meal the whole

whole day, which they cook in the following manner. In every bark the crew has a long flat stone for a hearth, upon which they kindle a fire, and hang a large kettle over it, in which they boil some fish; they then take a platter, and put some broken biscuit in it, with onions shred small; to this they add some pepper and vinegar, and then pour in the broth of the fish: no sort of soup or broth is more delicious than this. After having eaten of this excellent soup, they finish their meal with roasted fish, for they throw the boiled fish, of which the soup was made, into the sea. Soon after this repast, every man looks about for the most commodious place where to fall asleep, for no bedding are made use of in these vessels. About five or six in the morning they get up, leave the boat near the shore, weigh anchor and stand out to sea as before, and never taste victuals before the same time next evening. No man who knows the toil, fatigue, cold, and heat which these fishermen undergo, will ever charge the Spaniards with laziness.

The method of curing these fish is this: they cut them open, clean and wash them thoroughly, chop off their heads and fins, and pile them up to drain off the water; after which they are salted, and stowed in bulk in the hold. But because they do not, like the French who fish on the banks of Newfoundland, wash their fish a second time and resalt them, they will not keep above six weeks or two months.

It is strange to think that the Spaniards should want to share the Newfoundland fishery with the English, when they have one

much better at their own doors; I say better, for the weather here, and every thing else, concurs to make it the best fishery in the universe. What can be a stronger proof of this than the Moors on the continent drying and curing all their fish without salt, or by any other process than exposing them to the sun-beams? For the pure wholesome air of that climate, and the strong northerly wind which almost constantly prevails on this coast, totally prevents putrefaction, provided the fish are split open, well washed, and exposed to the sun until they are perfectly dry.

As these vessels seldom go to fish on any part of the coast of Barbary, to the windward of the islands, and are obliged to ply against the fresh northerly winds which almost continually prevail there, they are constructed in such a manner that they hold a good wind, as it is termed in the sea-language, being very sharp fore and aft, and full and flat in the middle. They are rigged brigantines, and carry a large flying fore-top-sail, but in general no main-top-sail, nor stay-sails; they all carry large sprit-sails, but no jibs. I have known these barks to beat to windward from Cape Blanco to Grand Canaria in twelve days, though the distance is above four hundred miles. Their method of plying to windward is this: they weigh about six or seven o'clock in the morning and stand off to sea, with the land-wind, until noon, when they put about, and stand in shore, with the sea-breeze; when they come close in with it, they either anchor for the night, or make short tacks until day-light, when they stand out to sea, till noon,

as before. The difference between the land and sea-breezes on this coast is generally four points, and they both blow a fresh top-sail gale. When they get ten or fifteen leagues to the windward of Cape Bazador, they stand over for the island of Grand Canaria; if the wind happens then to beat north-east, they fetch the port of Gando, on the south-east part of that island; but if the wind is at north-north-east, they only fetch the calms, into which they push, and there soon find a south-west wind to carry them close to Canaria, from whence the greater part of them go to Santa Cruz, and Port Orotava, to discharge their cargoes; the rest go to Palmas in Canaria, and to Santa Cruz, in the island of Palma. They do not stop at these places to sell the fish, but leave them with their agents, to sell them at leisure and to the best advantage. The common price is three half-pence per pound, or thirty-two ounces, which is the weight here used for flesh and fish; sometimes they are sold for a penny, and never higher than two-pence. The regidores or cavildo, in the islands, always regulate the price.

Instead of encouraging this most useful and profitable branch, the magistrates in these islands take every method to hurt it; for they most impolitically fix a price on the fish, and clog the trade with foolish and unreasonable duties, besides forbidding the fishermen to have any dealing or intercourse with the Moors on the coast where they go to fish; which is a very great hardship on them, as they are often obliged, when they meet with bad weather, to go ashore there for fuel and water. However

they privately correspond with them, to their mutual advantage; for the Canarians give to the inhabitants of the Desert old ropes, which the latter untwist and spin into yarn or twine for making fishing nets; they also give them bread, onions, potatoes, and fruits of many kinds: in return for which the Moors allow them to take wood and water on their coast, whenever they are in want of these most necessary articles, and make them presents of ostrich eggs and feathers. The inland Moors would punish their poor countrymen, who live on fish by the sea-coast, if they knew of their correspondence with the Canarian fishermen: but this does not prevent that intercourse, as necessity obliges these people, so different from one another, to conform to the laws of nature, however contrary to the precepts of both their religions. But this profitable communication has lately been interrupted, as I shall have occasion to observe in the description of that part of Africa.

These barks generally make eight or nine voyages in the space of a year. From the middle of February to the middle of April they remain at Canaria to careen, repair, &c. because at that season of the year the fish are found only to the northward, where the shore lies almost south-west-by-west, or west-south-west, consequently open and exposed to the north-west winds, which sometimes blow there in February, March, and April, and make that part of the coast to be what we call a lee-shore.

When I first frequented the coast of the Desert, the Canary men went no farther to the southward than

than Cape Barbas, in latitude 22 degrees north; but now they go to Cape Blanco, which lies about 30 leagues beyond it. Although the bulk of their cargoes consists of large bream, yet they catch many other sorts, viz. tassarte, before-mentioned, a delicious fish, which tastes like a very large and fat mackarel, but when dried cannot be distinguished from dried salmon. The cod caught here is better than that of Newfoundland: the anhoua is exceeding good; the carbino is a large fish, weighing about 30 pounds. There are besides these a number of flat fish, with many other sorts which I cannot describe.

Although this fishery is capable of the greatest improvement, yet the English have no reason to be apprehensive of the Spaniards ever being able to bring it to any degree of perfection, so as to rival them in the Spanish and Italian markets: the power of the clergy in Spain is a better security to the English against such an event, than if a fleet of 100 sail of the line were stationed on the coast of Barbary to obstruct the Spanish fishery.

Fresh wort, or the infusion of malt, first proposed by Mr. David M'Bride, surgeon, and now recommended to trial by Dr. Ratty, as a powerful antiscorbutic in long voyages.

AMONG the many laudable attempts that have of late years been made for preventing or checking the progress of that direful malady, the scurvy at sea, there is one which hath lately been

communicated to the public, that seems to merit peculiar attention, being founded on a set of experiments judiciously made and applied, in a work intituled, *Experimental Essays*, by David M'Bride, surgeon.

The humanity, the importance, and usefulness of the author's design, are evidently such, that I thought I could not do a better service to my country, than by exhibiting to the observation both of the learned and unlearned the following sketch of it.

It is a well-known fact, that the disease above-named has never yet been known to yield to any other kind of remedies, than to such as are composed of fresh vegetables; and provided they be fresh, and taken in large quantities in the way of diet, it is almost no matter what they are; the acid, the alcalescent, the mild and the acrid, the sweet and the bitter, all and each of them cure the scurvy, though their sensible qualities be so opposite, and their manner of affecting the body in ordinary cases be so different. This plainly shews then that their operation on the scorbutic humour must depend on some property which all fresh vegetables possess in common.

Now a property common to all fresh vegetables is, that when mixed with the flesh or juices of any animal, they presently run into fermentation, and in the course of that fermentation throw off a subtile vapour, which hath a surprizing power to restore sweetness to putrid animal substances.

This our author hath very satisfactorily proved by a great number of experiments which give the

the strongest reasons to believe that the cure of the scurvy depends entirely on the fermentation of the fresh vegetables, which is carried on in the stomach and bowels, thus producing a great quantity of the vapour above mentioned, which mixes with the blood, and there restores its consistence, and brings back its sweetness; for in the scurvy, the blood is entirely dissolved into a thin and putrid ichor.

This being the case, we have only to find out some vegetable substances which may be kept for a length of time, and yet shall contain materials for raising a fermentation in the bowels like unto that raised by fresh vegetables, and then, in all human probability, we shall at all times be masters of a remedy for the scurvy.

Such a substance our author presumes to be malt.—Malt differs widely from the grain in its crude state; by the germination, drying, and slight torrefaction, its natural viscosity is destroyed, it acquires an agreeable saccharine taste, and the farinaceous part is so far attenuated, as to be rendered soluble in water.

Fresh wort, or an infusion of malt, is a liquor similar to the recent juices of the fresh vegetables, fermenting readily like them, and being precisely of the same mild, saponaceous, and aperient nature.

Now there is nothing more certain than that these juices cure the scurvy: what then should hinder wort from doing the same thing? and as it may be taken in as large a quantity, with as much safety, and as little disgust as any fresh juice whatsoever, there can be no possible objection to its being tried.

Wherefore all persons concerned in long voyages, and particularly the East-India company (for now in time of peace the king's ships will seldom be visited with the scurvy) ought to pay attention to the proposal of our author; namely, to carry out malt on board the ships, which is to be previously well dried, and packed in small casks, and these are to be stowed in the bread-room, or some other dry part of the ship, and kept until the scurvy shall begin to appear among the crew; then the malt is to be coarsely ground and brewed into wort occasionally, as it may happen to be wanted.

The manner proposed for brewing the wort is, to pour three parts of boiling water to one of the ground malt, and having let the mixture stand close covered up for three or four hours, then to strain it off: and the method in which it is to be given is to boil it up into a panada, with sea-biscuit, or some of the dried fruits that are usually carried to sea; then let the scorbutic patients make at least two meals a day of this palatable mess, and let them drink a quart or more, if it should be found to agree, (always, however, beginning with a smaller dose, and gradually increasing it) of the fresh infusion every twenty-four hours.

Its most likely effect will be to open the belly, a most agreeable circumstance to the poor scorbutics, in whom obstinate costiveness is a very common symptom; yet if it be taken too liberally, it may occasion severe griping and immoderate purging: when this happens, the dose must be lessened, and some drops of the acid elixir of vitriol may be given with it, in order

order to check the too great tendency to fermentation, and make it sit easier on the stomach.

It is, however, to be noted, that though our author insists chiefly on the wort, as thinking it comes the nearest to the fresh juices in every respect, yet where malt has not been carried out, and melasses, brown sugar, or honey, happen to be at hand, he desires that either of them may be tried, being previously dissolved in a due proportion of water (about four to one) and given to patients in the way of drink and panada, as hath been already proposed.

That a scheme so easily practicable, and with a probable prospect of success, may be put in execution, is earnestly recommended to those whom it may concern; and if the success should prove equal to the expectations reasonably formed of it, it would do honour to the British islands, and be a standing evidence, that whilst we are retiring from the tumults and stratagems of war, we are not negligent in promoting the more glorious arts of peace and love. This is the aim of the present recommendation of the above-mentioned scheme from one who has the pleasure of an acquaintance with the author, and of being a witness to the truth of his experiment.

JOHN RUTTY.

Dublin, 23d 11th month, 1764.

Easy method of hindering Water from growing putrid.

IN the course of experiments which a very ingenious and useful member of the Society of

Arts, &c. was making, he had occasion to mix clay with a large quantity of water in a cistern.

After the water and clay had remained thus mixed for some weeks, he tasted the water before it should be thrown out, and found it sweet and well flavoured. On this he stirred them, to find whether any putrid stench might rise from the bottom, but was agreeably surprized to find that the whole was equally sweet.

He now resolved to keep it longer, in order to determine what effects time might have on the mixture, and, if my memory serves me right, repeated the tastings and stirrings for several months, with equal success, though some part of the time was summer, during which he expected that the water would have become highly putrid.

He communicated this discovery to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, who paid the regard to his communication which so important a matter deserved, and referred it to the committee of chemistry, with orders to make what experiments should seem to them requisite to determine a point so necessary to the welfare of numbers, as many diseases are known to take their rise from putrid water; and the whole was approved by them.

Thus, then, every cottager has it in his power constantly to use sweet and wholesome water, by just mixing with water a quantity of common clay sufficient to take off its transparency, so far as that the hand held just under the surface shall not appear through it.

If I may venture my opinion, I think the clay acts only as a substance

stance of exceeding small particles, which being diffused through the minute interstices between the particles of water, adhere, by their clamminess, to every animal or vegetable substance they meet with, and carry them to the bottom. There the animal and vegetable particles, the only putrescent ones, are so far separated from one another, by the intervening clay, that they no where come in contact in sufficient quantity to bring on a regular putrefaction, but rather dissolve into an uniform substance with the clay.

I shall not enter here into the great naval purposes to which this discovery may be applied, leaving that to the author himself, or to some better pen.

Easy method of sweetening putrid Water, with a hint for remedying some inconveniences attending fire-ventilators.

I Have been captain of a Guiney-man several voyages; on which occasions I always took a half barrel of unslacked lime with me, to be ready to use to sweeten the ship's water.

On the slaves being turned down in an evening, we always got our water up, in a cask we have on purpose, abaft our barricade, first straining the water off out of the cask, being the sediment of what was left that day to put into the boiler (which was of iron, as I never used a copper) for the next day's slaves provision; then we filled our cask out of the hold, the water often being thick, and stinking very much; to remedy which we always put three or four meat spoonfuls of the lime to a puncheon

of water, containing about ninety gallons.

The following morning the water would be as clear as any spring water, and as sweet.

Unslacked lime has likewise the quality of sweetening casks, by just putting some of it in cold water into the cask, stopping it close, and then rolling it about till no more noise is heard.

I shall say no more, but refer you to Alston's Dissertations on Quick Lime, and its great use in sea voyages.

I had always good success in both white and black from mortality, a great deal of which I attributed to the lime in water; and after using it a little while, the slaves would not drink the water without lime was in it.

Once a Sailor, now a Farmer.

P. S. In Dr. Mead's works, there is mentioned a ventilator by fire from the furnace, which being tried on board his majesty's ships, complaint was made of the fire going down with the pipe.

This might be easily remedied by forming it into the furnace with a swan's neck.

I am sure it would be of the utmost service on board a Guiney-man, as our furnace is fixed at the barricade at the main hatchway.

From the pipe that leads to the well there should be two branches of about a foot or two long, to which the leather hoses (pipes of the same nature with the leather pipes used in fire-engines) should be screwed; and at every fathom distance there should be wooden noses, as they then might make the hoses longer or shorter, to be conveyed to what part of the ship they pleased.

General rules to preserve the Health of soldiers and sailors in hot climates : by the late Dr. Hales.

FIRST, let all our soldiers who have a mind to preserve health live temperately ; particularly let them abstain from all excess in rum, or other spirituous liquors. Whatever they drink of spirits must be a long time distilled, and reduced to an innocent sherbet, by mixing in it five parts in six of water. This may be done by the care of their officers.

Secondly, let them, as much as possible, avoid the heavy evening dews, or wetting their feet at night, which last generally produces fatal sore throats : if by accident they wet their feet, the surest remedy is, as quickly as they can after, to wet their whole body.

Thirdly, let them, where they have opportunity, plunge every morning into the salt water. In the inland parts, where this opportunity is not at hand, let each soldier every morning throw into his basin an ounce of salt ; and after it is dissolved in the water, dip into the basin a coarse towel, and wet his head, his limbs, and all his body over with this salt water, and immediately after put on his cloaths, without drying his skin : bay salt is the best, if it may be had. This wonderfully strengthens and braces all the muscular fibres, and covers the skin with a kind of saltish crust, which prevents all feverish infections. This whole process may be executed in three minutes, and effectually embalms and preserves the body from danger for that day.

Translation of a letter from the Avoyer, or chief magistrate, at Berne, in Switzerland, to —, relative to the magazines for corn and wine there.

SIR,

YOU ask me for an account of the provisions both for corn and wine which are subsisting in the canton of Berne, and if it is true that we owe the establishment of them to the patriotic zeal of a citizen of this republic, who, dying without children, left his riches for that purpose : in regard to which, I have the honour to acquaint you, that you have been misinformed as to the nature of the foundation of our magazines ; and give me leave to add, by the way, that it is not in this little republic, as in great states. At Berne private men have very slender fortunes : on the contrary, the state, by a course of disinterestedness and prudent œconomy in those who govern, may pass for rich, since the rights of the royalties only, with the rents of the estates, or lordships, of which they are possessed, both by purchase and conquest, put it in their power, and even without raising any sort of tax or excise on the people, to lay up almost every year some saving in the treasury ; from thence it arises that the government is always both willing and able to relieve the wants of its citizens and subjects, and therefore such foundations would, in this country, be works of supererogation.

The magistrates of Berne ever flatter themselves that it is more honourable for them to administer the

the revenues of the republic in such a manner, that none but itself should be in a capacity to relieve the people, than it would be, if by augmenting the salaries of their officers, which they are well able to do, they should become, after the example of many great states, rich citizens in a poor republic. But it is time to finish this long digression, and to apply myself to satisfy, Sir, your curiosity: I will begin by laying before you the nature of the magazines for corn.

The people of Berne have two sorts, one subject to great variations, the other always the same.

There are of the first sort many in the capital, and in many other parts of the canton, which are filled, more or less, according as the abundance of the harvest, and goodness of the grain, furnish an opportunity; for, besides the fixed revenue which the state hath in fee-farm rents, it hath a great quantity of tithes, which are of a very casual, and very different produce. When there are several fruitful years in succession, the granaries of this sort in the capital become full; but in other parts, if there is an appearance, towards Easter, of a good harvest, the corn is sold which is in the castles of the different bailiwicks, after having paid the several salaries to which they are made liable; and the bailiffs, who have a certain revenue made good to them, account for the surplus to the chamber of œconomy at Berne. The magazines of this capital, on the contrary, are never opened, and sold but in dear times; and then care is taken not sell to any family more than is sufficient for

its supply, and always below the market price.

As to the magazines of the second sort, they are called the *provision*, and were established in pursuance of a convention called the *dissentional*, which the whole Helvetic body hath entered into for the common defence of Switzerland in case of an attack from a foreign enemy. This treaty regulating the number of troops and artillery which each canton is bound to furnish, obliges them, at the same time, to have always ready, and in store, provision and ammunition in proportion to their contingent. There are of these magazines of provision, as well at Berne as in all the castles where the bailiffs reside: they are never either diminished or increased, only care is taken to keep them always in good order, and to substitute good corn in the place of that which decays. A bailiff, who should misapply this provision, would be deposed; and from time to time the deputies of Berne, without giving notice of their intention, visit these magazines, and cause the corn to be measured over. Although there is six times more corn in these magazines than the contingent, which Berne furnishes by the *dissentional*, requires, they have never taken out, in times of peace, more than one fourth part in an exceeding scarcity; and they have had great care to refill them without delay.

This is, Sir, in abridgment, an account of the magazines for the provision of corn in the canton of Berne. Several short crops within fifteen years having caused the common people to suffer by the high price which they were obliged to give for their bread, and the

corn which the government caused to be purchased in Burgundy and Suabia, and resold to a great loss, having given but little relief to the misery of the poor, there is at present a project under consideration at Berne, which, if it is brought to pass, will, in all probability, prevent the subjects of this state from paying very dear for their bread for the time to come; which is this: it is proposed to build, in those parts of the canton which are most fruitful in corn, large granaries, and at such times when the abundance of the harvest shall have caused the value of a certain measure of corn to fall below a certain price, to buy up, on account of the government, all that shall be left for sale in the markets, after private persons have done buying, to the end that the owner or farmer may be always sure of having a certain price for his corn, and not be under a necessity of being at the expence and trouble of laying up what he may have left in the town-hall, or of carrying it home again, or else selling it at too low a price to foreigners in the neighbourhood, of whom the subjects of Berne are often afterwards obliged to buy it again at an exorbitant rate. The government, on the contrary, will sell their corn again to their subjects as soon as ever the price shall have risen to a certain degree; and by this management they will prevent both the too high, and too low price of

this commodity, both of which are inconveniences, in their consequences hurtful enough to deserve the care of a sovereign to prevent, who hath nothing more at heart than to procure, as much as can depend on his care and foresight, the happiness of the people which Providence hath submitted to his government.

As to wine, the state of Berne having a great quantity of wine, as tithes and quit-rents, in the several vineyards in the canton, had formerly a great deal in store, both at Berne and elsewhere, of which they made use, in short years, both to pay the salaries in wine, which are annexed to a number of employments, and to supply the poor citizens therewith at a moderate price, observing the same precaution as when they sell corn at a low price; but the salaries in wine have by little and little increased to such a degree, that at this day there is so little left to be laid up, that after two succeeding short years, the state finds itself under a necessity of paying a great part of the salaries in money, which were appointed to be paid in wines, in order to keep it in their power to supply the tradesmen and other poor citizens of Berne therewith at a low rate.

I hope, Sir, that I have been so successful as to satisfy your curiosity; and have the honour to be, Sir,

Your humble servant.

An account of the progress of Grain from the market to the mouth; by an accurate trial made near Kettering, and exhibited before four of his Majesty's justices of the peace for the county of Northampton, August 3, 1757.

A Bushel of	Bought at	Weight by the market measure.	Weight by the standard measure.	Surplus above the standard.	When ground into meal.	When dressed into flour.	Bran.	A bushel of it		Weight of the loaves		Weight when baked.	
								half made into dough.	lb. oz.	unbaked.	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	
Wheat,	Kettering,	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	lb. oz.	Flour 22 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	Four twelve- penny loaves, each at	Four twelve- penny loaves, each at	Four twelve- penny loaves, each at	lb. oz.	
		61 8	60 0	1 8	58 12	45 1	12 6	Water 9 1 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 4	29 0	26 4	6 9	
								Barm 0 12	Odd weight 4 4	Odd weight 4 4	Odd weight 3 0		
								Salt 0 4					
Barley,	Harborough,							Dough 33 4	Two twelve- penny loaves, each at	Two twelve- penny loaves, each at	Two twelve- penny loaves, each at	lb. oz.	
		50 0	48 8	1 8	48 0	39 4	8 8	Flour 19 10	15 0	30 0	27 14	13 15	
								Water 11 2	Odd weight 2 0	Odd weight 2 0	Odd weight 1 4		
								Barm 1 0					
Rye,	Harborough,							Salt 0 4					
		56 8	53 0	3 8	52 12	30 14	21 2	Dough 32 0	One twelve- penny loaf	One twelve- penny loaf	One twelve- penny loaf	lb. oz.	
									One fix- penny loaf	One fix- penny loaf	One fix- penny loaf	6 8	
									Odd weight 1 12	Odd weight 1 12	Odd weight 1 0	19 8	
													20
													22 12

*Encouragement for planting Palm-trees
in high latitudes.*

THIS wonderful tree, which affords such plenty of fruit, and contributes so largely to the sustenance of the inhabitants in many parts of the globe, is propagated either from young shoots taken from the roots of full-grown trees, or from the stone of the fruit. The former method is chiefly used in the kingdoms of Algiers and Tunis; and those that are well transplanted, and sufficiently watered for four or five days (which is the only culture they require) will yield fruit in six or seven years.

The palm-tree is in its greatest vigour when about 30 years old, and continues in full strength near 70 years longer, bearing yearly in Algiers and Tunis, during this interval of time, 15 or 20 clusters of dates, each weighing 15 or 20 pounds. The fruit is oval, about 3 inches long, and 2 wide, having something of the taste of gingerbread. After 100 years growth, they begin gradually to moulder and pine away, and perish about the latter end of their second century.

The palm-trees are found also at St. Helena, Madagascar, Barbadoes, where the inhabitants make honey, wine, and sugar from them. And among the several vegetable substances which afford oil, so necessary for maintaining life, and promoting manufactories, I know none, says Sir Hans Sloane, but the fruit of this and the olive-tree, whose pulps are useful for these purposes.

Dr. Pococke informs us, that

the palm-tree is the most extraordinary tree in Egypt; the boughs are of a grain like cane. When the tree grows large, a great number of fibres shoot out from the boughs on each side, crossing one another in such a manner as to form a sort of close net-work; this they spin with the hand, and with it make cords of all sizes, which are mostly used in Egypt. They also make a brush for cloaths. Of the leaves they make mattresses, baskets, and brooms; and of the branches all sorts of cage-work, square baskets for packing, and which serve for many uses instead of boxes, &c.

These trees are male and female, but the fruit of the female will be dry and insipid without a previous communication with the male; the trees will even frequently cast the fruit; nor will it ever ripen to perfection without such congress.

There are several ways of fecundating this tree: some plant males near the females, that the prolific dust of the male may be conveyed by the air to the female; others tie clusters of the male flowers to the females. Dr. Shaw says, that in Algiers and Tunis (at which places the male trees are scarce) they used the parts of generation of this plant, and in a manner somewhat analogous to animal propagation: and this way one male tree is sufficient to impregnate 500 female trees. But the most ancient and frequent practice was, to take a whole cluster of the male tree, when in flower, and sprinkle the farina, or dust of it, over several clusters of the female.

The following extract of a letter from Berlin, is a demonstrative proof of the probability of
this

this useful and curious tree's succeeding in high latitudes.

“ There is a great palm-tree in the garden of the Royal Academy ; it has flowered and produced fruit these thirty years ; but the fruit never ripened, and when planted did not vegetate. The palm-tree, you know, is one of those in which the male and female parts of generation are found upon different plants. We having therefore no male plant, the flowers of our female were never impregnated by the farina of the male. There is a male plant of this kind at Leipzig, twenty German miles from Berlin. We procured from thence, in April 1749, a branch of male flowers, and suspended it over those of our female ; and the experiment succeeded so well that our palm-tree produced more than 100 perfect ripe fruit ; from which we have already eleven young palm-trees. This experiment was repeated last year, and our palm-tree bore above 2000 ripe fruit.” This relation is very curious, on account of the male and female palm-trees flourishing so completely, even under all possible disadvantages, in such high latitudes as Leipzig and Berlin.

John Bauhin describes and figures the whole fructification of a palm-tree, which he himself saw growing at Montpellier, and which produced branches both of male and female flowers, bearing dates ; and Mr. Ray, many years after, tell us, that he himself saw, at Montpellier, this very remarkable tree mentioned by John Bauhin.

But further to display the curious manner, and impenetrable secrecy of the works of the Most

High in the vegetable world, and to engage reflecting minds to consider the nice distinction in plants, notwithstanding the near affinity of the species ; it will not be amiss to observe, that even though the female tree of one species may be fecundated by the male of another, and the fruit grow to maturity and perfection, yet the stones are rendered incapable of vegetation by an imperceptible barrier, an inviolable law of the divine Author. The following remarkable instance will display that wonderful œconomy in nature to preserve the different genuses of plants distinct and separate.

A French author tells us, that being at Martinico he saw growing near the place where they anchored, a palm-tree bearing dates, though the only one of its kind which was in that neighbourhood ; but he imagines this tree to have been impregnated by the farina fecundans of the male cocoa-tree, which is a sort of palm, and which grew in abundance near the tree that bore dates. At the same time he adds, that the stones of the dates did not vegetate.

For further information concerning this, and some other very remarkable plants, I would recommend to the reader's perusal a very curious botanical memoir, published in the 47th vol. of the *Philosophical Transactions*, page 169.

I shall conclude with observing, that perhaps no tree is more frequently mentioned by the inspired writers than the palm-tree, or applied, by way of similitude, &c. to more noble purposes.

A—Z—

On

*On the benefit of Salt to Cattle, with
the method of using it.*

I Do not find that the farmers in England know the great advantages which may be derived from the use of salt in the business of fattening cattle; whereas in America we think it in a manner absolutely necessary, and accordingly give it to almost every kind of cattle; and those with parted hoofs are particularly fond of it.

There cannot be a greater instance of this fondness, than the wild cattle resorting to the salt licks, where they are chiefly killed. We give this name of salt licks to the salt springs which in various places issue naturally out of the ground, and form each a little rill.

Horses are as fond of salt as black cattle; for with us, if they are ever so wild, they will be much sooner brought to a handful of salt than to any kind of corn whatever.

We also give salt to our sheep; and to this practice it is generally ascribed, that the American cattle in general are so much more healthy than the same animals in England; certain it is, that they are there subject to much fewer diseases.

There is one very advantageous practice we have, which I cannot enough recommend to the notice of the farmers here in England: it is mixing salt with our hay-ricks when we stack it, which we call brining.

Just before I left America I had a crop of hay, which was in a manner spoiled by rain, being almost rotten in the field; yet did this hay

spend as well as if it had been got in never so favourably.

When my servants were making up the stack I had it managed in the following manner; that is, as soon as a bed of hay was laid about six inches thick, I had the whole sprinkled over with salt; then another bed of hay was laid, which was again sprinkled in like manner; and this method was followed till all the hay was stacked.

When the season came for cutting this hay, and giving it to my cattle, I found that so far from refusing it, they eat it with surprising appetite, always preferring it before the sweetest hay that had not been in this manner sprinkled with salt.

A method of making all kinds of Wood more durable than they naturally are, successfully tried, upon beech wood.

BEECH wood is well known to be very much subject to breed the worm, which presently destroys it: this worm is supposed, not without reason, to feed on the sap that remains in the wood after it is cut out into scantlings, and wrought up; therefore I imagined the best way to preserve it was to take away the food that the worm fed on, by extracting, in some manner, the sap.

There was, as I have been informed, some years ago an attempt made to prepare beech-timber in such a manner as to make it fit for the purposes for which elm is often used in ship-building; and a patent was obtained for the invention; but I never heard of this scheme meeting

meeting with encouragement, which I am apt to think might partly be owing to the expence attending the reparation of the timber.

The manner in which it was done was as follows: after the timber was sawed into scantlings, or hewed only, if it was to be used in an entire piece, it was laid in a bed of sand, which sand was contained in a building of brick work, contrived in such a manner as to be heated, by means of properly disposed furnaces, to any degree.

This heating of the sand caused the wood which it covered to sweat out its sap, which was all imbibed by the dry sand, and the timber was left, after the operation, in a state much improved.

I do not deny but that this method was very efficacious, but it appears on the face of it to be expensive.

I use, for the purpose of improving this wood, two several methods. When the scantlings are large, I lay them, after they are rough-wrought, to soak in a pond of water for some weeks, more or less, according to the girth of the pieces, and the season of the year; in the heat of summer the operation is soonest done. If they are planks or boards, and there is danger of their warping, I lay them to dry under cover from the sun and rain, putting bits of laths betwixt the boards to prevent their lying close together, and a considerable weight of stones, &c. over all. If they are blocks of a large scantling, for beams, joists, &c. for which this wood is sometimes used, I take no other caution than letting them dry gradually, without being exposed either to the sun or the rain, which would be

apt to make them shiver, and be spoiled in the working.

The first method never failed me. The timber, when applied to use, was at least as good, and as durable as elm. Between thirty and forty years ago I used beech, thus prepared, for beams, joists, and floors, which are to this day as sound as ever, and likely to remain so; I had, however, the precaution to give the wood a thick coat of pitch wherever it touched the brick work, for it does not love any kind of dampness, which inclines it to rot, like elm; but keep it dry, and I cannot say how long it will last in my method of preparing it.

The beech I used was felled in the heat of summer, when in full sap, as I judged the sap was at that season in the most fluid state, and would the readier quit the wood than when it was dead, and congealed, as it were, in an inactive state in winter.

If I remember right, the beams and larger pieces were left above twenty weeks in the pond, the joists and rafters about twelve weeks, and the thinner boards eight; and afterwards they were all gradually dried in the manner above directed.

I boil in a large copper, which holds near two hogheads, for two or three hours, all the beech wood I employ in smaller uses, which is no inconsiderable quantity in a year, being a chairmaker and a turner by trade; and then, before I dry it, I bestow another short boil on it, of about a quarter of an hour, in some fresh water, the first being strongly impregnated with the sap, and acquiring a high colour and a bitter taste. This way
of

of managing the wood takes out all the sap; it works pleasanter, is more beautiful when finished, and lasts, without comparison, longer.

I have often thought, that for many uses it would be a great improvement of this wood, if it was a third time to be boiled in some vegetable oil, or at least, if not boiled in it, managed in some manner that the pores of the wood should be filled with the fat juice; but as this is expensive, and I had no immediate occasion for such an improvement, I never made the trial; and it is too late in life for me to do it now.

Extract of a letter from Vevas in Switzerland, July 25th, 1764; containing an easy method of making wood less combustible.

BEING fond of every thing that promises to be of public utility, I was the other day much gratified by seeing an experiment made to prove the efficacy of a method discovered by Dr. Henchoz, for making wood less combustible. When the company was assembled, several fir billets were produced, which had been previously prepared according to the doctor's directions. We made a large fire, and laying on one of the above billets, it remained a considerable time uninjured, seeming to repel the fire; at last however it was with some difficulty consumed, or rather it mouldered into ashes, but without emitting any flame. We repeated the experiment several times, and always with the same success; by which we found, that in an ordinary fire this wood remained unconsumed. You per-

haps will expect that I shall inform you in what manner this wood was prepared, and I am happy in having it in my power to oblige you. The method is simple; it is only soaking the wood in water, in which equal quantities of common salt and vitriol have been dissolved; but the water should be nearly saturated, or the success will not be so certain; the wood is to be dried, and is afterwards fit for any use, and seems particularly to be adapted to wainscoting, as that is most in danger when fire breaks out in a house.

On staining elm boards of a mahogany colour, with a hint towards staining Wood whilst growing.

AS I am very fond of mahogany furniture, I immediately (on reading a paper relating to a method of imitating it) entered on some experiments for that purpose; but as a particular narrative of each would be too tedious to repeat, I shall only observe, that the method which succeeded best with me was as follows:

I took two pieces, one of elm, and another of plane, both of which I stained well with aqua fortis.

I then took two drachms of powdered dragon's blood, one drachm of powdered alkanet root, and half a drachm of aloes; from all which I extracted a tincture, with half a pint of spirits of wine: this tincture I laid over the wood with a sponge for two or three times, and it gave it the colour of a piece of fine old mahogany.

But may not wood be more uniformly and durably coloured while growing,

growing, since the bones of animals, as I myself have often seen, are successfully coloured by feeding them on madder roots? The anhelant tubes, by which trees suck their nourishment from the earth, are analogous to the mouths of animals, and the circulating vessels of the former are much larger than those in the bones of the latter.

Directions for discovering Coal-mines.

INquiries of this nature will, I am very apprehensive, become every year more necessary, as many parts of this island are almost destitute of that, without which we cannot subsist, I mean fuel for fire. And many other parts, from which those were once supplied with wood for fuel, have now very little to spare; for which cause, not only our large cities and principal towns, but also great part of the inhabitants in country places, must be supplied with something as a substitute, as turf, peat, or coals.

From the first no great supply can be expected, except to those who reside near such barren sandy heaths where petty whin, heather, and short furze, plentifully grow: from the second, it is true, something may be expected, as large quantities thereof may be had in many counties; but as an unpleasant smell accompanies the burning it, it is not likely there will be any more of it used for culinary uses than what bare necessity obliges; so that it may justly be concluded, coals will ever remain that kind of fuel for which there will be the greatest demand; the consequence of which may be reasonably supposed an increase of its price, unless

greater supplies can be discovered than what at present are known.

These considerations have frequently induced me to wish, for the sake of the middle and lowest ranks of people, that more frequent trials might be made for this valuable mineral; and as I live in the neighbourhood of many collieries, I have, as opportunity and leisure would permit, made frequent inquiries and observations on the most probable signs of it on the surface under which it is to be expected; some of which I now propose to communicate, as, perhaps, from these hints, an inquiry of this nature may be carried further by persons better qualified for such undertakings.

One general, and I think it may be said certain sign is, iron ore: for wherever this is to be met with, coal is near.

But the better to guide, it may not be amiss to fix some certain and easy-to-be known sign, on or near the surface, as a standard by which to direct the search; inasmuch as the earth is composed of several strata, consisting of different kinds of earth and stones, all which have a fall or dip to some point between the north and south eastward, their several sections appearing on the surface in the opposite points, and are by miners, at least those who dig coal, called the crop of the veins.

This being premised, I would propose the stratum of free stone, or what may be better known by the name of Bath-stone, for the standard, as being the easiest to be discovered on the surface; laying it down as a certain maxim (at least it has appeared no other to me) that not any coals are to be met with

with to the south or south-east of the section of this stratum*; but must be looked for, if any success be expected, on the opposite side between the north and south west-ward.

The section of the stratum, which appears next on this side, is a kind of sandy rock, in which large stones of harder consistence lie interspersed; next unto this frequently appears a section of the white lyas stone, but not in every place, it being in some places lost in another stratum, consisting of very hard lime-stone and a kind of grey iron flinty stone intermixed, which lieth on a stratum of marl of various colours, but mostly red, brown, and blue, in veins.

The next section is clay, the colour frequently varying, but is mostly of that of yellow ochre, inclining to an orange; under which is the stratum of penant-rock, in which are frequently met veins of iron, answering the character of that metal in every respect, except ductility; and very frequently do appear, in the quarries of the stone of this stratum, lumps of pure coal in solid pieces of this stone; and sometimes thin veins of coal between the strata of stone in this stratum.

Next unto this, and often intermixed with it, is the section stratum, which contains the coal, and is what the miners call the crop of the vein, and is discovered by the ground being springy, and subject to green mols; amongst which

water frequently stands in little puddles, the bottom and sides of which are generally covered with yellowish slime, resembling sulphur in appearance; and if the surface of the ground be so situated as that the water may drain off, the course of a channel in which it runs is usually of the like colour, and even the stones are tinged therewith.

But though I have called this stratum, or one layer, yet it is made up of several strata, consisting of coal, of dun, which is an imperfect coal, earth, and stony substance, each being of various thickness, so that the sections of the strata of coals are often a considerable distance from each other, but the pits or shafts, by which the coal is brought to land, are mostly made in or near the section of the stratum of clay; sometimes in that of marl, and sometimes in the penant, but in neither of these two very often; and in sinking down through these, that is, the clay and penant, there is frequently found in the clay very hard lyas, or saints-head stones; and in the stratum of penant, its hardness, which appears at its section, is generally become soft, and when exposed to the air and wet, subject to fall to pieces.

Memoirs concerning the method of making Salt-petre in Padolia, written originally in Latin by Dr. Wolf, and translated, for the service of the public, by a gentleman

* According to the best observation I have been capable of making, this stratum has its course through England nearly in a line, N. E. by N. and S. W. by S. This I apprehend to be its bearing, though allowance must be made for the projecting of promontories, and the inequality of the surfaces, by which means it is in some places thrown in opposite directions, but in a few miles resumes its natural course.

subscribing himself J. B. who thinks there are many soils in England that would answer the same purposes.

BY far the greatest part of the salt-petre consumed in Europe comes from the East Indies: almost all that is brought from the Polish and Russian Ukraines, or the neighbouring provinces, is obtained by an elxiviation from earth and ashes. Earth may be supposed to participate both of vegetable and animal substances; and it is a necessary circumstance that it should remain a long time quiet, uncultivated, and desert. Such is the constitution of many parts of the soil of the Ukraine and Podolia, as this country has lain uncultivated ever since about the third century, when its ancient inhabitants, the Getæ, were driven out by the Bulgarians, whose posterity were more addicted to the breeding of cattle than to agriculture. To which may be added the Turkish and Cossack wars in the last century, which almost depopulated the country; yet in these our days, new colonies having, through its natural fertility, been induced to settle here, it is now sufficiently well cultivated.

This vast extended plain seems in a manner covered with black or dusky red earth, to the depth of some inches, and sometimes a foot, under which lies an earth more or less white, chalky, calcareous, or a rock indurated out of some of these, intermixed with sea-shells of various kinds, and in such plenty, that in some places it seems to consist wholly of them. Clay and sand

are rarely to be met with. This earth is of so light a texture, and so easily dissolved in water, that it is carried away with it, and again restored to its dry state by very moderate wind and sunshine, when it is very apt to rise in a fine black dust, fall upon the cloaths of travellers, and penetrate even to the skin.

The country-folks allow the tokens of nitre to be these; that the earth or mould be of a deep black, soft to the touch, without any sandiness, and easily reducible to an exceeding fine powder: if it be dungy, it then must have a kind of fatness; if it discovers the cool taste of nitre; if it seems to have been left a long while undisturbed; and a particular symptom of its richness, is a nitrous efflorescence, in the form of a white down which overspreads it; from which they also infer that some town, village, sheep-fold, or burying-place, had formerly occupied the spot. Above all others they are fond of searching for it in certain hillocks, which they call, in their language, *mogely*; they are of a conical figure, and undoubtedly artificial, and the monuments of battles fought there*. One of these, on account of its superior size called *szzeroka mogila*, or the great hill, near Granow, probably a very ancient one, has yielded nitre continually for near a hundred years past. It is near three hundred paces in diameter, and seems, from the shape of its remains, to have been at least three hundred feet high. It is commonly reported that a certain queen, having by express the account of a neighbouring king being oppressed by the enemy,

* Like the burrows or barrows on Salisbury Plain and Marlborough Downs.

hastened with an army to his assistance, and through misinformation, slew her own husband; whether any human bones lie buried there, future time must discover.

For manufacturing their saltpetre, they make choice of a place not far from a spot rich enough in nitre to keep them continually at work for at least a whole summer; and besides, such as can supply them sufficiently with water and wood at an easy expence. The utensils they employ, are called by one name, *maydan*, and consist of the following articles.

1. A large copper boiler, containing about 60 amphors, of 6 gallons, or about 54 pounds of water each.

2. One hundred wooden tubs or fats open on the top, with a hole bored near the bottom, which may be stopped occasionally; each of these holds a carr of earth, or about 4 or 5 amphors.

3. Two very large casks of about 100 amphors each.

4. Wide troughs or coolers to the number of 32, holding an amphor each, or somewhat more, in which the crystallization is to be performed.

5. A sufficient number of amphors for fetching water.

A pit is dug in the ground, of depth sufficient for erecting a furnace or fire-place at the bottom, and receiving the boiler, set in with bricks over it, with its brim on a level with the surface, over which brim is constructed a circular covering or border of wood about eight inches high, and this lined with lute to keep the ley from boiling over. The two great casks are placed at a small distance, being destined to receive

the ley, which is conveyed into them by hand-scoops.

The nitrous earth is first of all beat to a coarse powder with iron spades, and cleared of stones, and other hard substances, laid lightly in heaps, and then brought to the furnace. If it be very rich in nitre (indicated either by its fatness or its downy efflorescence) they mix with it some of a poorer sort in equal quantity, but very black and old: this is, in the language of the chymists, with an animal earth they combine one that is purely vegetable. Last of all, they add ashes, to the amount of about a fifth part of the whole, more or less, as best suits their purpose and mix them together. The ashes they commonly make use of are of the ash, which they have in great plenty. If they have quantity of urine at hand they throw it in, but never any quicklime. Thus they prepare a suitable stock of earth at the beginning of the summer, and continue to do so as long as is necessary, so as never to be in want of a fresh supply. Some are so provident as to prepare beforehand a quantity sufficient to last them through the whole course of the ensuing summer: but the usual practice is to bring the earth, as soon as prepared, to the furnace, which is done in the following manner.

Into one of the above mentioned tubs (N^o 2.) they put one carr of the prepared nitrous earth, that is, about four amphors; then they fill up the vessel with cold water though some warm it, and add quantity of ashes, if none have been mixed up with the earth stirring the whole well with a wooden staff; then they suffice

it to stand twenty-four hours, only stirring it by times. After this space they suffer the ley to run out at the hole near the bottom, and put it into the two large casks, (No. 3.) They clear the tubs of the elixivated earth and put in fresh, and thus the operation is continued as long as the boiling of the nitre lasts.

In this decoction of the nitre, what they call the mother of nitre is absolutely necessary. This is the inspissated lixivium remaining after the crystallization of nitre, which cannot itself be made to crystallize: wherefore, this they keep from one year to the next; and for want thereof, the decoction must be continued at least a week before any crystallization can be performed as it ought to be. The reason of which seems to be, that the lixivium is not susceptible of a degree of heat sufficient for sending off the pinguinous and alkaline parts, which necessary density is given it by the mother of nitre, as it contains a copious calcareous earth dissolved in the acid of salt and nitre. When the lixivium has acquired this pitch, the rest of the operation is easily performed.

Of this mother of nitre they pour one or two tubs into the boiler, to which they add the new ley collected in the great casks till the boiler is full; then they kindle the fire, and keep the contents boiling near twenty-four hours.

As soon as they perceive any marks of crystallization on the surface, they remove the ley thus decocted and inspissated into the thirty-two wooden coolers described in No. 4, and let it remain there twenty-four hours; in which

time the crystallization being completed, they drain off the mother of nitre, and return it into the boiler. The crystals are taken out and dried, but as they never prove clean, they are again dissolved in clean water, filtered through a flannel bag, and boiled up again in a lesser boiler to a requisite thickness, and then crystallized again, which brings them to be fit for sale. To the mother of nitre returned into the boiler, they in like manner add more fresh ley from the two great casks, boil it twenty-four hours, and then crystallize. In this manner is the work carried on all the summer, and till the winter's frost puts an end to it.

One day's produce they call *doba*, amounting in weight to at least one *kamien*, or fourteen *oko*, that is, about twenty-four common pounds. About one *oko*, or three pounds, is lost in the purification. A single pound of salt-petre fetches, in time of war, upon the spot where it is made, four roubles (seventeen shillings) but in time of peace it is much cheaper.

Now supposing one carr or four amphors of loose nitrous earth prepared with ashes to make four cubic feet; it follows, that from 400 cubit feet of such earth there may be obtained about forty pounds of salt-petre; and that one pound of it resides in ten cubic feet of prepared earth, or in seven or eight pounds of the more compact native earth; though such a computation should not be deemed very accurate.

The earth thus cleared of its nitre is cast out of the tubs in heaps about four feet high, and so left for the space of four years, at the end of which the maydan

are brought thither, and a like quantity of nitre is got out of this earth as before. Upon a third working, after seven years more, it still yields some nitre, but scarce enough to defray the cost.

I make no doubt but this method of making salt-petre came hither from the east; and that it is done by a similar process in India and China. Several authors have described the method of doing it in other parts of Europe. They all require earth and ashes, and in some urine and quick lime is employed. The mixture is exposed to the air in all of them either open or under sheds. Some throw it up in heaps, others deposit it in pits; whichever way it is done it infallibly produces nitre, though in very different quantities, and that chiefly in proportion to the fatness of the earth.

Salt-petre is considerably different as to its degree of purity. The natural sort of the first decoction always holds a portion of common salt. Its crystals are not prismatic, but cubic, and it is much of the same goodness as that which has a mineral alkaline basis, whether from common salt or otherwise; for it assumes its figure always from an alkali, not from an acid, notwithstanding Dr. Linnæus has founded good part of his system of fossils on this error. If too much calcarious earth and too little ashes be combined in the decoction, the crystals will not be so hard, and if dissolved, may be precipitated by an alkali, which good nitre will not submit to. If the ashes be from hard wood, the crystals will be firmer and larger, as are those of India. If the earth has any metallic intermixture, espe-

cially of iron, it will impart a tincture to the nitre. Hence the Indian salt-petre is of a reddish hue, and the fumes of the aqua fortis made from it are remarkably red in comparison of those from the Polish. This latter, mixed with English vitriol, yields a green aqua fortis, which turns a precipitated solution of mercury yellow, and by cohobation, white. In a word, the chymists give the preference to the Polish salt-petre in all operations.

Nitre may be purchased at a much easier expence by the English, Dutch, Poles, and Russians, than it can be made for at home; the reason of which is the cheapness of wood fuel, which may be had, in a manner, for fetching. In the Prussian dominions alone, there is perhaps more salt-petre made than in all Europe besides; and yet I do believe that scarce a thousandth part of what was consumed in the late wars was of European produce. Earths rich in volatile salt and nitrous particles turn to far better account in manuring land and feeding the inhabitants, than in furnishing destructive salt-petre, which ought rather to be sought after in barren desarts.

*Process for making Sal Mirabile: by
Mr. Fergus of Piccadilly.*

TAKE calcined kelp, any quantity, powder it in an iron mortar, put it into an earthen pan well glazed, and pour upon it boiling water, in the proportion of a quart to a pound: stir it about for a little time, and either filtrate or decant the clear liquor

quor from the sediment: put the clear liquor in a glazed earthen dish, place it over a gentle fire, and when hot pour in gradually oil of vitriol diluted (viz. to every pound of oil of vitriol a pint and a half of water) till no effervescence arises, and you have gained the exact point of saturation: then filtrate through paper, or let it stand to depurate, and decant the clear liquor; evaporate to a pellicle, and set it by to crystallize.

By the above process I obtained from a pound and a half of kelp, eight ounces and a half of sal mirabile; and found that something less than two ounces of oil-vitrioli was sufficient for the saturation.

N. B. Sal mirabile may be also made from barilla instead of kelp; but not so cheap.

*An account of a very remarkable
Bridge in Wales.*

THIS bridge is called by the natives Point y ddy prydd. It lies on the river Taaf, at Lanttrissant, near Landaff, about ten miles above Cardiff in Glamorganshire. This bridge is no more than 8 feet broad, but it consists of a single arch no less than 140 feet wide, part of a circle of 175 feet diameter, so as to make the altitude 35 feet. It is therefore 45 feet wider than the celebrated Rialto of Venice, and probably the widest arch in Europe, if not in the world: at least I never read of any thing equal to it, that can be relied upon as matter of fact. The accounts given by some of the Popish missionaries of some

bridges in China look more like fables than realities.

The building of this bridge is well worth recording. About 12 or 14 years ago William Edward, a country mason, a native of the parish of Eglwysilan in that county, agreed with the hundreds of Miskin and Singhenith to build a bridge over the river Taaf in four arches for 500l. and to give securities to inture it for seven years. This bridge was finished, but a great flood in this rapid river entirely carried it away in less than two years time. He was then obliged to begin again. But he thought with himself that if he could build a bridge in one arch, it would be out of the power of the flood to hurt him a second time; and he was positive in his own mind that it was practicable. When he made this proposal to his securities they looked upon it as a very whimsical scheme; however at last they consented, and he set about it with all the eagerness of a projector. But when he had almost finished the arch, the center timber work gave way, and all fell to the bottom.

He now began again, erected stronger timber work, fairly completed the arch, the center was knocked off, and it stood the wonder and amazement of all beholders; and persons of curiosity came to see it from several distant parts of the kingdom. This was in the year 1755, when a copperplate plan, and prospect of this surprising arch were published, dedicated to Lord Windsor, the lord of these manors. But the misfortunes of the poor mason were not yet over. He was no master of the rules of architecture,

ture, and did not understand the necessity of preserving an equilibrium in a building of that prodigious bulk; and therefore he must buy his knowledge by experience, and pay dear for it.

The quantity of matter in the crown of the arch was but little in proportion to that which was necessary to be laid on the abutments in order to make the ascent easy. The weight of this matter caused such an inequality of pressure on the arch, that in about a year's time it crushed that stupendous pile, and it fell again to the bottom.

By this time the mason was greatly in debt, and greatly discouraged: but the lords Talbot and Windsor, (who have estates in that neighbourhood) pitied his case, and being willing to encourage such an enterprising genius, most generously promoted a subscription among the gentry in those parts, by which a sum of money was raised that enabled him to complete the bridge in one arch for the last time.

In order to lessen the quantity of matter in the abutments pressing upon the arch, and thereby to bring it on an equipoise with that on the crown, he has contrived three circular arches in the abutments: these pass through from side to side, like round windows, and gradually decrease in the ascent.

This surprizing piece of masonry, though built of stone, cost but 700*l.* has stood eight or nine years, and it is supposed that it may stand for ages to come, a monument of the strong natural parts, and bold attempts of an ancient Briton.

Method of destroying great numbers of Rats in a small time.

THE Society for encouraging Arts, &c. proposed, some time ago, a premium of 50*l.* for a preparation for taking rats alive. This may at first seem a trivial, perhaps even somewhat drole affair for that society to trouble themselves with: but when we consider that the loss to the public, by the destruction of corn alone, amounts to some hundred thousand pounds a year, besides that of many other commodities, subject to be devoured, or damaged by them, and the very disagreeable domestic annoyance of these noxious creatures where they abound, it will appear a matter of serious moment.

It was represented to the society, that professed rat-catchers have a secret for preparing some composition which will allure all the rats in or about any building together to one place, and intoxicate or fascinate them so, that they may be taken by the rat-catchers at pleasure; it was therefore concluded, that if this secret was laid open, any person might easily practise it without employing professed rat-catchers.

In consequence of advertising this premium, several candidates offered themselves; but it appeared, that instead of a preparation, that is, some composition which would allure, fascinate, or intoxicate the rats, so that they might be easily taken, they had only sent traps or machines of various forms and constructions.

As those who practise rat-catching for a livelihood are not many in

in number, nor always at hand, I shall give some hints of the principal means by which, in three or four days time, or sometimes less, they can clear a house, and even the out-buildings, of the greatest part of the rats frequenting it.

The first step taken is, to allure the rats all together to one proper place, before they attempt to destroy them; for there is such an instinctive caution in these animals, accompanied with a surprizing sagacity in discovering any cause of danger, that, if any of them be hurt or pursued in an unusual manner, the rest take the alarm, and become so shy and wary, that they elude all the devices and stratagems of their pursuers for some time after. This place, where the rats are to be assembled, should be some closet, or small room, into which all the openings, but one or two, may be secured; and this place should be, as near as may be, in the middle of the house, or buildings.

The means used to allure them to one place are various: one of those most easily and efficaciously practised, is, the trailing some pieces of their most favourite food, which should be of the kind that has the strongest scent, such as toasted cheese, or broiled red-herring, from the holes or entrances of the closet to their recesses in every part of the house or contiguous buildings. At the extremities, and in different parts of the course of this trailed track, small quantities of meal, or any other kind of their food, should be laid to bring the greater number into the tracks, and to encourage them to pursue it to the place where they are intended

to be taken: at that place, when time admits of it, a more plentiful repast is laid for them, and the trailing repeated for two or three nights.

Besides this trailing and way-baiting, some of the most expert of the rat-catchers have a shorter, and perhaps more effectual method of bringing them together; which is, the calling them, by making such a kind of whistling noise as resembles their own call; and by this means, with the assistance of the way-baits, they call them out of their holes, and lead them to the repast prepared for them at the place designed for taking them. But this I apprehend much more difficult to be practised than the art of trailing; for the learning the exact notes or cries of any kind of beasts or birds, so as to deceive them, is a peculiar talent which I have seldom seen attained, though I have known some few persons who could call together a great number of cats: and there is now one man in London, who can bring nightingales, when they are within hearing, about him, and even allure them to perch on his hand, so as to be taken.

In the practising either of these methods, of trailing or calling, great caution must be used by the operator, to suppress and prevent the scent of his feet and body from being perceived; which is done by overpowering that scent by others of a stronger nature. In order to this, the feet are to be covered with cloths rubbed over with *assa foetida*, or other strong smelling substances; and even oil of rhodium is sometimes used for this purpose, but sparingly, on

account of its dearness, though it has a very alluring, as well as disguising effect. If this caution of avoiding the scent of the operator's feet, near the track, and in the place where the rats are proposed to be collected, be not properly observed, it will very much obstruct the success of the attempt to take them; for they are very shy of coming where the scent of human feet lies very fresh, as it intimates to their sagacious instinct, the presence of human creatures, whom they naturally dread. To the above-mentioned means of alluring by trailing, way-baiting, and calling, is added another of a very material efficacy, which is, the use of oil of rhodium, which, like the *marum lyriacum* in the case of cats, has a very extraordinary fascinating power on these animals. This oil is extremely dear, and therefore sparingly used. It is exhaled in a small quantity in the place, and at the entrance of it, where the rats are intended to be taken, particularly at the time when they are to be last brought together, in order to their destruction; and it is used also by smearing it on the surface of some of the implements used in taking by the method below described; and the effect it has in taking off their caution and dread, by the delight they appear to have in it, is very extraordinary.

It is usual, likewise, for the operator to disguise his figure as well as scent, which is done by putting on a sort of gown or cloak, of one colour, that hides the natural form, and makes him appear like a post or such inanimate thing; which habit must likewise

be scented as above, to overpower the smell of his person; and besides this he is to avoid any motion till he has secured his point of having all the rats in his power.

When the rats are thus enticed and collected, where time is afforded, and the whole in any house and out-buildings are intended to be cleared away, they are suffered to regale on what they most like, which is ready prepared for them, and then to go away quietly for two or three nights; by which means those, which are not allured the first night, are brought afterwards, either by their fellows, or the effects of the trailing, &c. and will not fail to come duly again, if they are not disturbed or molested. But many of the rat-catchers make shorter work, and content themselves with what can be brought together in one night or two; but this is never effectual, unless where the building is small and entire, and the rats but few in number.

The means of taking them, when they are brought together, are various. Some entice them into a very large bag, the mouth of which is sufficiently capacious to cover nearly the whole floor of the place where they are collected: which is done by smearing some vessel, placed in the middle of the bag, with oil of rhodium, and laying in the bag baits of food. This bag, which before lay flat on the ground with the mouth spread open, is to be suddenly closed when the rats are all in. Others drive, or fright them, by slight noises or motions into a bag of a long form, the mouth of which, after

after all the rats are come in, is drawn up to the opening of the place by which they entered, all other ways of retreat being secured. Others, again, intoxicate or poison them, by mixing with the repast prepared for them, the *coculus Indicus*, or the *nux vomica*. I have seen a receipt for this purpose, which directed four ounces of the *coculus Indicus*, with twelve ounces of oatmeal, and two ounces of treacle or honey, made into a moist paste with strong beer; but if the *nux vomica* be used, a much less proportion will serve than is here given of the *coculus*. Any similar composition of these drugs, with that kind of food the rats are most fond of, and which has a strong flavour, to hide that of the drugs, will equally well answer the end. If, indeed, the *coculus Indicus* be well powdered, and infused in the strong beer for some time, at least half the quantity here directed will serve as well as the quantity before mentioned. When the rats appear to be thoroughly intoxicated with the *coculus*, or sick with the *nux vomica*, they may be taken with the hand, and put into a bag or cage, the door of the place being first drawn to, lest those who have strength and sense remaining escape.

By these methods, well conducted, a very great part of all the rats in any farm, or other house, and the contiguous buildings, may be taken. But it requires experience and observation to perform them well; and there may be circumstances known to the most skilful of the rat-catchers, which, if intelligibly communi-

cated, though they would not enable a person without practice to manage this affair completely, would yet greatly assist, and render it more easy to be attained. It would therefore be an object worthy the attention of the society, to procure for the publick the most perfect information that can be attained; to which end the premium should not be confined, as before, to a preparation for taking rats alive; but offered for the most easy and effectual method for taking rats, without the use of baited traps in the common way. The premium should be also greater than before; for 50*l.* is not a consideration for a man to lay open his art, so as to stir rivals, that may deprive him of part of his business, or lower his pay. A noble lord, who was before a zealous promoter of this premium, was desirous last year to have advanced 100*l.* if the society would have joined another to it, to have made up the sum of 200*l.* for this purpose; but from some accidental neglect the proposal was never publicly made to the society; though it is to be regretted that this generous intention was not pursued, and something further attempted by the society.

Cheap, easy, and clean mixture for effectually destroying Bugs.

TAKE of the highest rectified spirit of wine (viz. lamp-spirits) that will burn all away dry, and leave not the least moisture behind, half a pint; new distilled oil, or spirit of turpentine, half a pint; mix them together, and
break

break into it, in small bits, half an ounce of camphire, which will dissolve in it in a few minutes; shake them well together, and with a piece of sponge, or a brush dipt in some of it, wet very well the bed or furniture wherein those vermin harbour and breed, and it will infallibly kill and destroy both them and their nits, although they swarm ever so much. But then the bed or furniture must be well and thoroughly wet with it, (the dust upon them being first brushed and shook off) by which means it will neither stain, soil, nor in the least hurt the finest silk or damask bed that is. The quantity here ordered of this curious neat white mixture (which costs but about a shilling) will rid any one bed whatsoever, though it swarms with bugs. Do but touch a live bug with a drop of it, and you will find it to die instantly. If any bug or bugs should happen to appear after once using it, it will only be for want of well wetting the lacing, &c. of the bed, or the folding of the linings or cur-

tains near the rings, or the joinings or holes in and about the bed or head-board, wherein the bugs and nits nestle and breed; and then their being well wet all again with more of the same mixture, which dries in as fast as you use it, pouring some of it into the joints and holes where the sponge or brush cannot reach, will never fail absolutely to destroy them all. Some beds that have much wood-work can hardly be thoroughly cleared without being first taken down; but others that can be drawn out, or that you can get well behind, to be done as it should be, may.

Note: the smell this mixture occasions will be all gone in two or three days; which is yet very wholesome, and to many people agreeable. You must remember always to shake the mixture together very well, whenever you use it, which must be in the day time, not by candle-light, lest the subtlety of the mixture should catch the flame as you are using it, and occasion damage.

ANTIQUITIES.

A letter from the learned father Jacquier, professor of mathematics in the college of Sapienza at Rome, concerning the supposed Egyptian Bust at Turin. [See Vol. V. page 148.]

THEY hand about at Rome an anonymous pamphlet, which seems designed to renew the literary war that was lately carried on in this city, and at Paris, in relation to the famous Bust, supposed to be Egyptian, which is to be seen in the cabinet of antiquities of the king of Sardinia.

On the breast and forehead of that figure several characters are visible, which some antiquaries have supposed to be Egyptian. Mr. Needham having compared them with the characters of a Chinese dictionary in the Vatican, perceived a striking resemblance between the two. He drew from this resemblance an argument in favour of the opinion of the learned Monsieur de Guignes, concerning the origin of the Egyptians, Phenicians, and Chinese (or rather concerning the descent of the latter from the former) and pronounced without hesitation that the Bust was Egyptian.

The pamphlet now before me consists of several letters, in which the sentiment of Mr. Needham is refuted with the greatest warmth; and the anonymous author of it goes so far as to assert that the characters of the Chinese dictionary have been changed and falsified.

May I be allowed to make a few reflections upon this literary contest, of which I myself have been one of the more immediate spectators, and which really appears to me little else than a scene of shuffling and wrangling? There are two things that must be carefully distinguished from each other in this debate, namely, that which has been proved by ocular demonstration, and that which is destitute of all proof, which is utterly uncertain, perhaps false. As to the first, I myself was twice present when the characters in question were compared and confronted, and I could not observe any sensible difference between those of the Bust, and those of the Dictionary. It is true, that at our second meeting, several of the characters in the dictionary appeared blacker than they had formerly done; but it is also certain that the Chinese librarian had only drawn his pen lightly over these characters to render them more distinct, without changing, in the least, their form. To demonstrate that this was really the case, it is sufficient to observe, that the characters that were thus retouched, are frequently repeated in other parts of the dictionary, where, though they have not been touched at all, they bear the very same form. This declaration I have been obliged to make from a regard to truth, in relation to the first point in this debate, in which the accuracy and probity of Mr. Needham are particularly interested.

With

With respect to the conclusion that Mr. Needham draws from this conformity between the characters of the Bust and those of the Dictionary, viz. that the Chinese language and characters resembled formerly, nay perhaps were the very same, with those of the Egyptians, I acknowledge that I cannot see its evidence; nay it appears to me to be manifestly groundless. For let the origin of this bust be what it will, (which, by-the-bye, is not at all believed Egyptian) and supposing even that the characters it contains be really Egyptian, no conclusion can be drawn from thence with respect to their signification. It may very easily be conceived that the Chinese language, which comprehends such a prodigious multitude of characters, may have several which resemble the letters made use of in the oriental languages, and still more the Egyptian hieroglyphics, without signifying the same thing that is expressed by these letters and hieroglyphics. The following fact will fully explain my meaning: I sent to Mr. Needham an exact copy of an Egyptian inscription of considerable length, which is to be seen in the house of Monsieur de Breteuil, ambassador from the Order of Malta, at Rome. Mr. Needham consulted several Chinese dictionaries without being able to find any one of the letters contained in this inscription; and even had he found a few, he could not reasonably have drawn any conclusion from thence in favour of his hypothesis, considering the abundance and richness of these languages, and the number of characters of which they are composed. The adversaries of Mr. Needham, in this lite-

rary contest, ought therefore to grant the fact related by this learned gentleman, as this fact is strictly true, and confine their attacks to this hypothesis, in order to shew that the proof he draws from this fact of the sameness of language between the Chinese and Egyptians, and of the descent of the former from the latter, is lame and unsatisfactory. However this famous question may be decided, the discoveries and labours of Monsieur de Guignes on this subject cannot be too much applauded; and it must be always acknowledged, that the work published at Rome about three years ago by Mr. Needham, in relation to this matter, is far from discovering that depth of erudition and that inventive genius, that appear in the researches of the learned academician now mentioned.

Description of Syracuse, Palermo, and Enna: from M. D'Orville's Sicilia.

THE magnificent and famous city of Syracuse, which contained within its walls four others, was so destroyed by the Saracens in the IXth century, that few traces remain of its ancient grandeur. The description which our ingenious traveller has given of it, is by no means the least curious or least laboured part of his book. One has a sensible pleasure in accompanying him; first, into those vast quarries, which, like those of the mountain of St. Peter near Maestricht, take up almost all the ground under the city of Acradina; after that, into those magnificent and terrible quarries which the cruelties of

of Dionysius the tyrant have immortalized; and by Tacha, the second quarter, to the steep mountain Epipolæ, where that barbarous prince caused the famous prison of Latomiæ to be built. This able critic next discourses on the Hexapylon of Syracuse, and proves that it was a long edifice built on the causeway which joins Acradina to the isle of Ortygia, and where by six successive gates they passed from one of those parts of the city to the other: he would place the castle of Euryalus on the top of that rock which is now called the Belvedere. Descending with him from Euryalus into the plain on the south-side, we find the source of the fountain Cyane, the marsh Temenites, the river Anapus, and not far from thence, the ruins of the beautiful temple of Jupiter Olympus. Returning afterwards into that quarter of Syracuse which is called Naples, or the New City, our author makes us observe, among other things, the remains of a theatre and an amphitheatre near each other, with some quarries, which, like the foregoing, after having furnished materials for buildings, have been converted into sepulchres, or appropriated to other uses. There it is that one sees the famous prison which even now retains the name of Dionysius's ear, because, it is said, that the tyrant had fixed there some secret pipes, by means of which, on placing his ear at an hole, he heard every thing that the prisoners said of him; a vulgar fa-

ble whose origin was never guessed. The quarry in question was open in the form of an ear; this is all the mystery. The fourth quarter of Syracuse was the island of Ortygia, which an edifice with six gates separates from Acradina: two superb temples were there to be seen, dedicated to Minerva and Diana. What remains of the former is at this time dedicated to St. Mary of the Column. We must not forget that Ortygia had two harbours, the largest, which was on the east, was almost 12,000 paces in circumference. Very near this harbour, on the left, flows the famous fountain of Arethusa *, formerly nearer to the small harbour, as the learned Cluverius has demonstrated. It is at present almost reduced to nothing.

After doubling the cape of mount Gerbino, we again see trees, and by degrees a fruitful country, as one approaches to Palermo, formerly Panormus. This capital at a distance makes no grand appearance, because it lies in a bottom; but the farther one advances, the more delightful is the aspect, especially on the sea-side. A large street, which leads from the beach crosses all the city like a rope: this street is cut in the center by another, which forms there a square which is called *I quatre Cantoni*, and which is superbly furnished with magnificent fountains, adorned with beautiful statues. In general, Palermo is decorated with a multitude of churches, convents, and other buildings, which give it a

* *In hac insula extrema est fons aquæ dulcis, cui nomen Arethusa est, incredibili magnitudine, plenissimus piscium; qui fluctu totus operiretur nisi munitione ac mole lapidum a mare disjunctus esse.* CICERO.—For the story of Alpheus and Arethusa, see Ovid. *Metam.* b. 5.

superiority over all the cities of Sicily, and equal it to those most admired in Italy; but the modern has there absorbed the antique. As to inscriptions, scarce any ancient remains are to be found here.

Our author nevertheless describes a sepulchral stone, on which is to be seen the figure of a woman, who has all the air of an Egyptian, without our being able to say that she is one; for it seems undeniable that the people of Panormus and their neighbours had adopted the funeral ceremonies that were observed in Egypt. Not long ago a sepulchral grotto was discovered in the territory of Solus, where were found, among a number of vases and utensils, many idols, made entirely in the Egyptian taste. Of all this M. D'Orville gives exact representations.

A fight which struck him extremely was the subterraneous vault of the capuchins near the harbour of Palermo. On entering it, one instantly sees with horror above 1000 dead bodies dried up and fixed either to the walls or in the niches of that dreadful cemetery. All these skeletons are cloathed in grey, like the fathers of the convent; though they admit the dead of all ranks, as well those who are ambitious of that honour, as those to whom it becomes a disgrace. The attitudes of the latter are various, like the punishments of which they were worthy. Here is a figure, which, crowned with thorns, seems to have been torn in pieces by them. There is another which bends under the weight of an enormous cross. Others have a rope round the neck; one thinks one can read in their countenances

the torments which they have suffered. But what makes an admittance after death into this frightful society so desirable, is the reputation of the sanctity of these good fathers, and their readiness to perform miraculous cures, of which our author had the satisfaction to see the farce. Besides, many of these spectres begin to be thought prodigies; and, upon the whole, great pains are taken to make the devout multitude believe, that the preservation of these carcases is itself a miracle much superior to the powers of nature and of art. It is nevertheless well known, that in many subterraneous places, the nature of the ground alone, by means of some precautions, effects this pretended prodigy; witness the caverns of Tholouse and of Cremona, and especially those of the capuchins of St Ephraim at Naples. M. D'Orville had been there, and he informs us, that instead of drying them (as they do) and preparing their skeletons with lime, the capuchins of Palermo are contented with hanging for a year in some little caves inaccessible to the air, the corpses of those who are destined to the honour of figuring in this grand assembly, which represents the dominions of death and the shades.

Passing by the lake Pergus, one of the most beautiful places in the world, M. D'Orville arrived at Enna, now called Castro Giovani: it is a strong and spacious city, built on an eminence in the centre of the island, where it commands a most delightful and most fertile territory. There it is that Gelon dedicated to Ceres that grand and superb temple of which the ancients have said so much, but which probably was never finished. From
the

the place where it stood one discovers an immense country as far as the citadel of Montreal, which is but four miles from Palermo. To the west of Enna is a place called by distinction Il Monte, or the mountain; the inhabitants resort thither to worship some saint, I know not whom, with a devotion so fervent, that when our travellers arrived there, they were forced to fast, finding nobody at home; M. D'Orville therefore in his resentment forgot the name of the saint, who was too much worshipped for the welfare of his stomach; a fatal forgetfulness, for one should have been glad to know under whose auspices one of the most famous places in history now is; the place at which the king of hell issued forth, seized Proserpina, and carried her into his doleful dominions. It probably belongs to the Franciscans, with whom our author passed the night. If they had entertained him better he would not have forgotten their tutelary god.

An account of some subterraneous Apartments, with Etruscan inscriptions and paintings, discovered at Civita Turchino in Italy. Communicated from Joseph Wilcox, Esq; F. S. A. by Charles Morton, M. D. F. R. S.

Civita Turchino, about three miles to the north of Corneto, is an hill of an oblong form, the summit of which is almost one continued plain. From the quantities of medals, intaglios, fragments of inscriptions, &c. that are occasionally found here, this is believed to be the very spot where

the powerful and most ancient city of *Tarquini* once stood; though at present it is only one continued field of corn. On the south-east side of it runs the ridge of an hill, which unites it to Corneto. This ridge is at least three or four miles in length, and almost entirely covered by several hundreds of artificial hillocks, which are called by the inhabitants, *Monti Rossi*. About 12 of these hillocks have at different times been opened; and in every one of them have been found several subterraneous apartments, cut out of the solid rock. These apartments are of various forms and dimensions: some consist of 2 large outer room, and a small one within; others of a small room at the first entrance, and a large one within; others are supported by a column of the solid rock left in the center, with openings on every part, from 20 to 30 feet. The entrance to them all is by a door of about 5 feet in height, by two feet and an half in breadth. Some of these have no light but from the door, while others seem to have had a small light from above, through an hole of a piramidical form. Many of these apartments have an elevated part that runs all round the wall, being a part of the rock left for that purpose. The moveables found in these apartments consist chiefly in Etruscan vases of various forms; in some indeed have been found some plain sarcophagi of stones with bones in them. The whole of these apartments are succeeded, and ornamented in various manners: some indeed are plain: but others, particularly three, are richly adorned, having a double row of Etruscan inscriptions running round the upper part of the walls,

walls, and under them a kind of freeze of figures in painting: some have an ornament under the figures, which seems to supply the place of an architrave. There have been no relievos in stucco hitherto discovered. The paintings seem to be in fresco, and are in general in the same stile as those which are usually seen on the Etruscan vases: though some of them are much superior perhaps to any thing as yet seen of the Etruscan art in painting. The paintings, though in general slight, are well conceived, and prove that the artist was capable of producing things more studied and more finished, though in such a subterraneous situation, almost void of light, where the delicacy of a finished work would have been in a great measure thrown away, these artists, as the Romans did in their best ages (when employed in such sepulchral works) have in general contented themselves with slightly expressing their thoughts. But among the immense number of those subterranean apartments which are yet unopened, it is to all appearance very probable that many and many paintings and inscriptions may be discovered, sufficient to form a very entertaining, and perhaps a very useful work: a work which would doubtless interest all the learned and curious world, not only as it may bring to light (if success attends this undertaking) many works of art, in times of such early and remote antiquity,

but as perhaps it may also be the occasion of making some considerable discoveries in the history of a nation, in itself very great, though to the regret of all the learned world, at present almost entirely unknown. This great scene of antiquities is almost entirely unknown, even in Rome. Mr. Jenkins, now resident at Rome, is the first and only Englishman who ever visited it.

Remarks on the Roman Comitia.

WE have no authentic monuments of the earliest ages of Rome: there is even great reason to believe, that most of the stories told us of them are fabulous*; and indeed the most interesting and instructive part of the annals of nations in general, which is that of their establishment, is the most imperfect. Experience daily teaches us to what causes are owing the revolutions of kingdoms and empires; but as we see no instances of the original formation of states, we can only proceed on conjectures in treating this subject.

The customs we find actually established, however, sufficiently attest that there must have been an origin of these customs. Those traditions also relating to such origin, which appear the most rational and of the best authority, ought to pass for the most certain. These are the maxims I have adopted in tracing the manner in which the most powerful and free

* The name of Rome, which it is pretended was taken from Romulus, is Greek, and signifies force. The name of Numa is Greek also, and signifies law. What probability is there, that the two first kings of this city should have been accidentally called by names so expressive of their future actions?

people in the universe exercised the sovereign authority.

After the foundation of Rome, the rising republic, that is to say, the army of the founder, composed of Albans, Sabines, and foreigners, was divided into three classes; which from that division took the name of tribes. Each of these tribes was subdivided into ten *Curiae*, and each *Curia* into *Decuriae*, at the head of which were placed chiefs, respectively denominated *Curiones* and *Decuriones*.

Besides this, there were selected from each tribe a body of an hundred cavaliers or knights, called *Centurions*; by which it is evident, that these divisions, not being essential to the good order of a city, were at first only military. But it seems as if the presaging instinct of their future greatness, induced the inhabitants of the little town of Rome to adopt at first a system of police proper for the metropolis of the world.

From this primitive division, however, there resulted a very speedy inconvenience: this was, that the tribe of Albans, and that of the Sabines, always remaining the same, while that of the strangers was perpetually increasing by the concourse of foreigners, the latter soon surpassed the number of the two former. The remedy which Servius applied to correct this dangerous abuse, was to change the division, and to substitute in the room of distinction of race, which he abolished, another taken from the parts of the town occupied by each tribe. Instead of three tribes, he constituted four; each of which occupied one of the hills of Rome, and bore its name.

Thus by removing this inequality for the present, he prevented it also for the future; and in order that such division should not only be local but personal, he prohibited the inhabitants of one quarter of the city from removing to the other, and thereby prevented the mixture of their families.

He doubled also the three ancient centuries of cavalry, and made an addition of twelve others, but always under their old denomination; a simple and judicious method, by which he completely distinguished the body of knights from that of the people, without exciting the murmurs of the latter.

Again, to these four city tribes, Servius added fifteen others, called rustic tribes; because they were formed of the inhabitants of the country, divided into as many cantons. In the sequel were made an equal number of new divisions, and the Roman people found themselves divided into thirty-five tribes; the number at which their divisions remained fixed, till the final dissolution of the republic.

From the distinction between the tribes of city and country resulted an effect worthy of observation; because we have no other example of it, and because Rome was at once indebted to it for the preservation of its manners and the increase of its empire. It might be conceived the city tribes would soon arrogate to themselves the power and honours of the state, and treat the rustics with contempt. The effect, nevertheless, was directly contrary. The taste of the ancient Romans for a country life is well known. They derived

rived this taste from the wise institutor, who joined to liberty the labours of the peasant and the soldier, and consigned, as it were, to the city, the cultivation of the arts, trade, intrigue, fortune, and slavery.

Thus the most illustrious personages of Rome, living in the country, and employing themselves in the business of agriculture, it was among these only the Romans looked for the defenders of their republic. This station, being that of the most worthy patricians, was held in universal esteem: the simple and laborious life of the villager was preferred to the mean and lazy life of the citizen; and a person, who having been a labourer in the country, became a respectable house-keeper in town, was yet held in contempt. It is not without reason, says Varus, that our magnanimous ancestors established in the country the nursery for those robust and brave men, who defended them in time of war, and cherished them in peace. Again Pliny says, in express terms, the country tribes were honoured, because of the persons of which they were composed; whereas such of their individuals as were to be treated with ignominy, were removed into the tribes of the city. When the Sabine, Appius Claudius, came to settle in Rome, he was loaded with honours, and registered in one of the rustic tribes which afterwards took the name of his family. Lastly, the freedmen were all entered in the city tribes, never in the rural; nor is there one single instance, during the existence of the republic, of

any one of these freedmen being preferred to the magistracy, although become a citizen.

This was an excellent maxim, but was carried so far, that it effected an alteration, and undoubtedly an abuse, in the police of the state.

In the first place, the censors, after having long arrogated the right of arbitrarily removing the citizens from one tribe to another, permitted the greater part to register themselves in whatever tribe they pleased; a permission that could surely answer no good end, and yet deprived these officers of one of their severest methods of censure. Besides, as the great and powerful thus got themselves registered in the rural tribes; and the freedmen, with the populace only, filled up those of the city; the tribes in general had no longer a local distinction; but were so strangely mixed and jumbled together, that their respective members could be known only by appealing to the registers; so that the idea attached to the word tribe, was changed from real to personal, or rather became altogether chimerical.

It happened also, that the tribes of the city, being nearer at hand, had generally the greatest influence in the *Comitia*, and made a property of the state, by selling their votes to those who were base enough to purchase them.

With regard to the *Curiae*, ten having been instituted in each tribe, the whole Roman people, included within the walls, made up thirty *Curiae*, each of which had their peculiar temples, their gods, officers, and feasts, called

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Compitalia, resembling the *Paganalia*, afterwards instituted among the rustic tribes.

At the new division made by Servius, the number thirty not being equally divisible among the four tribes, he forebore to meddle with this mode of distribution; and the *Curiae*, thus independent of the tribes, formed another division of the inhabitants. No notice, however, was taken of the *Curiae*, either among the rustic tribes, or the people composing them; because the tribes becoming a mere civil establishment, and another method having been introduced for raising the troops, the military distinctions of Romulus were dropped as superfluous. Thus, though every citizen was registered in some tribe, yet many of them were not included in any *Curiae*.

Servius made still a third division, which had no relation to the two former, and became in its consequences the most important of all. He divided the whole Roman people into six classes, which he distinguished neither by persons nor place, but by property. Of these the higher classes were filled by the rich, the lower by the poor, and the middle classes by those of middling fortunes. These six classes were subdivided into 193 other bodies, called *Centuries*; and these were again so distributed, that the first class alone comprehended more than half the number of centuries, and the last class only one single century. In this method, the class that contained the fewest persons had the greater number of centuries; and the last class was in number only a subdivision, although it contained more than half the inhabitants of Rome.

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In order that the people should penetrate less into the design of this latter form of distribution, Servius affected to give it the air of a military one. In the second class he incorporated two centuries of armourers, and annexed two instruments of war to the fourth. In each class, except the last, he distinguished also between the young and the old; that is to say, those who were obliged to bear arms, from those who were exempted from it on account of their age; a distinction which gave more frequent rise to the repetition of the *census* or enumeration of them, than even the shifting of property. Lastly, he required their assembly to be made on the *Campus Martius*, where all those who were of age for the service were to appear with their arms.

The reason why he did not pursue the same distinction of age in the last class, was, that the populace, of which it was composed, were not permitted to have the honour of bearing arms in the service of their country. It was necessary to be housekeepers, in order to attain the privilege of defending themselves; there is not one private sentinel, perhaps, of all the innumerable troops that make so brilliant a figure in the armies of our modern princes, who would not, for want of property, have been driven out with disdain from a Roman cohort, when soldiers were the defenders of liberty.

In the last class, however, there was a distinction made between what they called *Proletarii* and those denominated *Capite Censi*. The former, not quite reduced to

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nothing, supplied the state at least with citizens, and sometimes on pressing occasions with soldiers. As to those who were totally destitute of substance, and could be numbered only by capitation, they were disregarded as nothing; Marius being the first who deigned to enrol them.

Without taking upon me here to decide, whether this third species of division be in itself good or bad, I may venture safely to affirm, that nothing less than that simplicity of manners which prevailed among the ancient Romans, their disinterestedness, their taste for agriculture, their contempt for trade, and their thirst of gain, could have rendered it practicable. Where is the nation among the moderns, in which voracious avarice, a turbulence of disposition, a spirit of artifice, and the continual fluctuation of property would permit such an establishment to continue for twenty years without overturning the state? Nay it must be well observed, that the purity of the Roman manners, and the force of a censure, more efficacious than the institution itself, served to correct the defect of it at Rome; where a rich man was often removed from his own class, and ranked among the poor, for making an improper parade of his wealth.

It is easy to comprehend from this, why mention is hardly ever made of more than five classes, though there were in reality six.

The sixth, furnishing neither the army with soldiers, nor the *Campus Martius* * with voters; and being of hardly any use in the republic, was hardly ever accounted any thing.

Such were the different divisions of the Roman people. We will now examine into the effects of which they were productive, in their assemblies. These assemblies when legally convoked, were denominated *Comitia*, and were held in the *Campus Martius*, and other parts of Rome; being distinguished into *Curiata*, *Centuriata*, and *Tributa*, according to the three grand divisions of the people into *Curiae*, *Centuriæ* and *Tribes*. The *Comitia Curiata* were instituted by Romulus; the *Centuriata* by Servius, and the *Tributa* by the tribunes of the people. Nothing could pass into a law, nor could any magistrate be chosen, but in the *Comitia*; and as there was no citizen who was omitted in a *Curia*, *Century*, or *Tribe*, it follows, that no citizen was excluded from giving his vote; so that the Roman people were truly sovereigns, both in right and fact.

To make the assembly of the *Comitia* legal, and give their determinations the force of law, three conditions were requisite. In the first place it was necessary, that the magistrate, or body convoking them, should be invested with proper authority for so doing; secondly, that the assembly should occur on the days permitted by

* I say the *Campus Martius*, because it was there the *Comitia* assembled in centuries; in the two other forms, they assembled in the *forum* and other places where the *capite censi* had as much influence and importance as the principal citizens.

law; and thirdly, that the augurs should be favourable to their meeting.

The reason of the first condition needs no explanation; the second relates to no affair of police. Thus it was not permitted the *Comitia* to assemble on market days, when the country people coming to Rome on business, would be prevented from transacting it. By the third, the senate kept a fierce and turbulent multitude under some restraint, and opportunely checked the ardour of the seditious tribunes. The latter, however, found more ways than one to elude the force of this expedient.

But the laws and the election of the chiefs were not the only matters submitted to the determination of the *Comitia*. The Roman people having usurped the most important functions of government, the fate of Europe might be said to depend on their assemblies. Hence the variety of objects that came before them gave occasion for divers alterations in the form of these assemblies, according to the nature of those objects.

To judge of these diversities, it is sufficient to compare them together. The design of Romulus in instituting the *Curiae* was to restrain the senate, while he himself maintained his influence equally over both. By this form, therefore, he gave to the people all the authority of number, to counterbalance that of power and riches, which he left in the hands of the patricians. But, agreeable to the spirit of monarchy, he gave more advantage to the patricians, by the influence of their clients, to obtain the majority of votes. This

admirable institution of patrons and clients, was a master-piece of politics and humanity, without which the order of patricians, so contrary to the spirit of the republic, could not have subsisted. Rome alone hath the honour of giving to the world this fine example, of which no abuse is known to have been made; and which, nevertheless, hath never been adopted by other nations.

This division by *Curiae* having subsisted under the kings till the time of Servius; and the reign of the last Tarquin being accounted illegal; the legal laws came hence to be generally distinguished by the name of *Leges Curiae*.

Under the republic, the *Curiae*, always confined to the four city tribes, and comprehending only the populace of Rome, could not arrive either at the honour of sitting in the senate, which was at the head of the patricians, or at that of being tribunes; which, notwithstanding they were plebeians, were yet at the head of the citizens in easy circumstances: they fell, therefore, into discredit, and were reduced to so contemptible a state, that their thirty lictors assembled to do the whole business of the *Comitia Curiata*.

The division by *Centuries* was so favourable to aristocracy, that it is not at first easy to comprehend why the senate did not always carry their point in the *Comitia Centuriata*, by which the consuls, censors, and prætors, were chosen. It is in fact certain, that out of the hundred and ninety-three centuries, forming the six classes of the whole Roman people, the first class containing ninety-eight of them, and the votes being reckon-

ed only by centuries, this first class alone had more votes than all the others; when the centuries of this class, therefore, were found to be unanimous, they proceeded no farther in counting votes; whatever might be determined by the minority, being considered as the opinion of the mob. So that it might be justly said, that in the *Comitia Curiata* matters were carried rather by the greater quantity of money than the majority of votes.

But this extreme authority was moderated by two causes. In the first place, the tribunes, generally speaking, and always a considerable number of wealthy citizens, being in this class of the rich, they counterpoised the credit of the patricians in the same class. The second cause lay in the manner of voting, which was this: the centuries, instead of voting according to order, beginning with the first in rank, cast lots which should proceed first to the election. And to this, the century whose lot it was proceeded * alone; the other centuries being called upon another day to give their votes according to their rank, when they repeated the same election, and usually confirmed the choice of the former. By this method the preference of rank was laid aside, in order to give it according to lot, agreeable to the principles of democracy.

There was another advantage resulting from this custom; for the citizens residing in the coun-

try had time, between the two elections, to inform themselves of the merit of the candidate thus provisionally nominated; by which means they might be better enabled to give their vote: but under the pretence of expediting affairs, this custom was in time abolished, and the two elections were made the same day.

The *Comitia by Tribes* were, properly speaking, the great council of the Roman people. These were convoked only by the tribunes; by these also the tribunes were chosen, and by these the *Plebiscita*, or laws of the people, were passed. The senators were not only destitute of rank in these assemblies, they had not even the right to be present at them, but obliged to pay obedience to laws, in the enacting of which they had no vote: they were in that respect less free than the lowest citizens. This injustice, however, was very ill understood, and was in itself alone sufficient to invalidate the decrees of a body, whose members were not all admitted to vote. Had all the patricians assisted at these *Comitia*, as they had a right in quality of citizens, they could have had no undue influence, where every man's vote was equal, even from the lowest of the people to the highest personage of the state.

It is evident, therefore, that exclusive of the good order that results from these several divisions, in collecting the votes of so numerous a people, the form and me-

* The century thus preferred by lot was called *prærogativa*, because it was the first whose suffrage was demanded; and hence is derived the word *prærogative*.

thod of these divisions were not indifferent in themselves; each being productive of effects adapted to certain views, in regard to which it was preferable to any other.

But without entering into a more circumstantial account of these matters, it is plain from what hath been advanced, that the *Comitia Tribunata* were the most favourable to a popular government, and the *Comitia Centuriata* to an aristocracy. With respect to the *Comitia Curiata*, of which the populace formed the majority, as they were good for nothing but to favour tyrannical designs, they remained in the contemptible state into which they were fallen; even the contrivers of sedition themselves not chusing to employ means, which must have exposed too openly their designs. It is very certain that the whole majesty of the Roman people was displayed only in the *Comitia Centuriata*, which only were complete; the *Curiata* wanting the rustic tribes, and the *Tribunata* the senate and patricians.

With regard to the method of collecting the votes, it was among the primitive Romans, simple as their manners, though still less simple than that of Sparta; every one gave his vote aloud, which the register took down in writing; the plurality of votes on each tribe determined the vote of that tribe; and the plurality of votes in the tribes determined the suffrage of the people. In the same manner also they proceeded with regard to the *Curie* and the *Centuries*. This custom was a very good one, so

long as integrity prevailed among the citizens; and every one was ashamed to give his public sanction to an unworthy person or cause. But when the people grew corrupt and sold their votes, it became necessary to make them give their votes more privately, in order to restrain the purchasers by distrust, and afford knaves an expedient to avoid being traitors.

I know that Cicero censures this alteration, and imputes to it in a great degree the ruin of the republic. But though I am sensible of all the weight of Cicero's authority in this case, I cannot be of his opinion: I conceive, on the contrary, that the ruin of the state would have been accelerated, had the Romans neglected making this alteration. As the regimen of people in health is not proper for the sick, so it is absurd to think of governing a corrupt people by the same laws, which might have been expedient for them before they were corrupted. There cannot be a stronger proof of this maxim than the duration of the republic of Venice, the shadow of which still exists solely because its laws are adapted only to bad men.

On this change in the manner of voting, tablets were distributed amongst the citizens, by means of which they could give their suffrage without its being known. On this occasion other methods were of course made use of in collecting votes; such as counting the number of voices, comparing it with that of the tablets, &c. Not that these methods were so effectual as to prevent the returning

officers * from being often suspected of partiality; and it appeared plain in the sequel, from the multiplicity of laws made to prevent bribery and corruption in elections, that they could not effect this point.

Toward the decline of the republic, recourse was had to very extraordinary expedients to make up for the insufficiency of the laws. Prodigies were sometimes played off with success; but this scheme, though it imposed on the multitude, did not impose on those who influenced them. Sometimes assemblies were called suddenly and in great haste, that the candidates might not have time to create an undue interest: at others again, the whole session was spent in declamation, when it was seen that the people were biased to take a wrong side. At length, however, ambition eluded all these precautions; and it is almost incredible that, in the midst of so many abuses, this immense people still continued, by virtue of their ancient laws, to elect their magistrates, to pass laws, to judge causes, and to expedite both public and private affairs with as much facility as could have been done in the senate itself.

On the origin of the Salic Law; from the Abbé Velly's history of France, lately published.

HONORIUS reigned in the west, and Theodosius the younger in the east, when the Franks crossed the Rhine under Pharamond,

and pillaged the city of Treves. It was about the year 420, when, being lifted up on a shield, he was shewn to the whole army, and acknowledged the nation's chief. This was all the inauguration of our ancient kings.

To Pharamond is generally attributed the institution of the famous law called the *Salic*, either from the surname of the prince who published it, or Salogast's name who moved it, or from the word *Salichame*, the place where the heads of the nation met to digest it. Others will have it to be so named, as having been made for the Salic lands. These were noble fiefs which our first kings used to bestow on the *Salians*, that is, the great lords of their *Sal* or court, without any other tenure than military service; and for this reason, such fiefs were not to descend to women, as by nature unfit for such a tenure. Some, again, derive the origin of this word from the *Salians*, a tribe of Franks that settled in Gaul in the reign of Julian, who is said to have given them lands on condition of their personal service in war. He even passed the conditions into a law, which the new conquerors acquiesced in, and called it *Salic*, from the name of their former countrymen.

This law is commonly thought to concern only the succession to the crown, or the Salian lands; but this is a two-fold mistake. It was not instituted for the disposal of the crown, nor purely for settling the rights of private persons to feudal lands; it is a collection

* Custodes, rogatores, suffragiorum.

of ordinances for all articles; it prescribes punishment for theft, for setting places on fire, for sorcery, and acts of violence; it lays down political rules for behaviour, for public government, methods of procedure and the preservation of peace and unity among the several members of the state. Of the seventy-one articles which it contains, only one relates to inheritances, and the words are, *In the Salic lands no part of the inheritance is to go to females; it belongs wholly and solely to the males.*

It appears that all we have of this law is an extract from a larger code; and this proved by citations from the Salic law itself, and certain forms which are not found in our remains of that celebrated ordinance. The sagacious glossographer Duchange speaks of two sorts of Salic laws; one subsisting in the times of paganism, and composed by Wisogast, Bosogast, Salogast, and Waldogast, the four chiefs of the nation; the other, a correction of the former, by Christian princes, is that published by Du Tillet, Pithou, Lindembrock, and the great lawyer Bignon, who has added very learned and judicious notes. Du Hallion, but on grounds known only to himself, boldly avers it to be merely a contrivance of Philip the Tall to exclude from the throne Joan of France, daughter of Lewis X. He must surely have forgotten how minutely that question was discussed in an assembly of the grantees of the realm, when they unanimously adjudged the crown to Philip, to the exclusion of that princess; so persuaded were they of the existence of a Salic law, and that the kingdom of France was Salic land. Soon after arose a like

contest, and the decision was the same. The right of Edward III. king of England, did not appear better founded than that of princess Joan, a daughter of France. Philip earl of Valois was generally acknowledged the legal successor of Charles the Handsome. The article determining the right of private persons to Salic land was declared equally to concern the succession to the crown, and became a fundamental law of the state.

Of modern Nobility, especially among the French; from M. Voltaire's Supplement to his General History.

THE word *noble* was not at first a title, including any particular rights hereditary: *nobilitas*, among the Romans, denoted any thing remarkable or notable, and not a class of the citizens. The senate was instituted for the administration of justice; the knights to fight on horseback, when their wealth entitled them to a horse; and the plebeians were often knights, and sometimes senators.

Among the Gauls the principal officers of the towns, and the druids, ruled, and the people obeyed. All countries have had their nominal distinctions of conditions. They that say all men are equal, say very true, if their meaning be, that all men have an equal right to liberty, to property, and to the protection of the laws; but it would be a great mistake did they imagine that men are to be equal in employments, since they are manifestly not so in their abilities. In this necessary inequality between conditions,

ditions, never was there among the ancients, nor in nine parts of the habitable earth, any thing like the institution of nobility in the tenth part, which is our Europe.

Its laws, its usages have varied, like every thing else. The most ancient hereditary nobility was that of the Venetian patricians, who were members of the council, before there was any such thing as a doge, even in the fifth and sixth centuries; and if, as is said, any descendants of theirs be still in being, they are, indisputably, the first nobles in Europe. It was the same in the old republics of Italy. This nobility was annexed to the dignity and employment, and not to lands.

Every where else nobility became the portion of the proprietors of lands. The nobility of the Herren in Germany, of the Ricos hombres of Spain, of the barons in France and England, was hereditary, purely because their lands, feudal or not feudal, remained in their families. The titles of duke, count, viscount, and marquis, were at first dignities and offices for life, and afterwards made hereditary, but some sooner than others.

In the declension of the race of Charles the Great, almost all the states of Europe, republics excepted, were governed as Germany is now; and we have already seen that every possessor of a fief became, as much as he could, a sovereign on his own estate.

It is clear that sovereigns owed nothing to any one, except what the lesser had bound themselves to pay to the great. Thus a castellan paid a pair of spurs to a

viscount, who paid a falcon to a count, who paid some other token of vassalage to a duke, all acknowledging the king of their country for their paramount; but none of them were taxable. They owed personal service, as in fighting for the state, and for the representative of the state; they fought for their lands and for themselves; and hence it is, that to this day, new nobles, and persons ennobled, who have no land estate, are not subject to the farmer's land-tax called *la taille*.

The owners of castles and lands, of whom in every country except commonwealths, the body of the nobility consisted, ever enslaved the people on their lands as much as they could; but the great towns never failed making head against them. The magistrates of those places could not be brought to be the bondsmen of a count, baron, or bishop, and still less of an abbot, pretending to the same prerogatives as a baron or count. The cities on the Rhine and the Rhone, and others still more ancient, as Autun, Arles, and Marseilles especially, flourished before nobles or prelates were heard of. The magistracy existed ages before fiefs; but the lords of castles and the barons got the better of the people almost every where; so that if the magistrates were not the lord's bondsmen, they were his liegemen, as appears from a multitude of old charters, where mayors and aldermen call themselves burgeses of a count, or of a bishop, or the king's liegemen. These liegemen could not change their habitation, or seek a new settlement, without their lord's permission, and the pay-

payment of considerable duties; a kind of servitude still subsisting in Germany.

As fiefs were distinguished into free gifts, which owed no duty to the lord paramount, and into great and small homageable fiefs; so were their liegemen, i. e. burgeses, who had purchased an exemption from all homage or payments to their lord; great burgeses, who held the municipal employments; and petty burgeses, who in many articles were slaves.

This constitution, as it had been formed insensibly, in like manner underwent many gradual changes in several countries, and in others it was totally abolished.

The kings of France, for instance, began with ennobling liegemen, giving them titles, without estates. The patent of nobility granted in 1095, by Philip I. to Eudes de Mairie, a burges of Paris, is said to have been found in the record-office; and unquestionably St. Lewis had conferred the like honour on his barber la Brosse, as he made him his chamberlain; so that Philip III. who ennobled Raoul, his house-steward, is not, as some have advanced, the first king who took on him to change men's condition. Philip the Handsome in like manner invested one Betrout and some other burgeses with the title of noble and esquire, *miles*, and was herein imitated by every succeeding king. In 1339 Philip de Valois ennobled Simon de Luci, president of the parliament, and likewise Nicole Taupin his wife.

King John, in 1350, conferred nobility on his chancellor William de Dormans, as then no ecclesiasti-

cal, literary, or judicial posts gave rank among the nobility; however, the men of letters might stile themselves knight of law, and batchelor of law. Thus John Pastourel, king's council, was, together with his wife Sedille, ennobled by Charles V. in 1354.

The kings of England also created counts and barons without county or barony. The emperors exercised the like privilege in Italy; and even the proprietors of great fiefs set up to be fountains of honour: thus a count of Foix was seen to arrogate to himself the prerogative of ennobling and amending the casualty of birth, by granting a patent to Maitre Bertrand his chancellor; and Bertrand's heirs stiled themselves noble; but if the king and noblesse acknowledged such nobility, it was entirely a matter of courtesy. The like liberty came to be taken by the owners of lordships, as those of Orange, Saluces, and many others.

The military corps of the Franc Archers, or free bowmen, and of the Taupins under Charles VII. being exempted from paying the *taille*, made free with the title of noble and esquire, without any kind of permission; time, which settles or overthrows customs and privileges, has confirmed it; and several eminent families in France are descended from these Taupins, who made themselves noble, and who, indeed, well deserved to be such, for the great services they performed to their country.

The emperors created not only nobles without lands, but counts palatines; a title given to university professors. The author of this custom was Charles IV. and

Bartoli

Bartoli was the first whom he dignified with this title of count, which honour would no more have gained his children a seat in the chapters of cathedrals, than the nobility of the Taupins.

The popes, as pretending to be above emperors, thought their pre-eminence required that they should also create palatines and marquises; accordingly the legates, who are prefects over the provinces belonging to the holy see, were every where liberal of those empty titles; and hence it is that Italy has more marquises than lords of fiefs.

In France, when Philip the Handsome had created the court of parliament, the feudal lords, as members of that court, were under a necessity of consulting men of letters, taken, if not from the servile class, from the free, great, or petty liegemen. These literati, aping the nobility, soon called themselves knights and bachelors; but the appellation of knight, given them by their clients, did not pass current at court, and the attorney-general Pastourel, and even Dormans the chancellor, were obliged to take out patents of nobility. The university students, after an examination, stiled themselves bachelors, and after a second examination, licentiates, not daring to assume to themselves the title of knights.

It seems a great contradiction, that the men of the law, who tried the nobility, should be excluded from the rights of nobility; yet this contradiction prevailed every where: but in France, during their lives they enjoyed the same exemptions as the nobles. Their rights indeed did

not intitle them to a seat in the assembly of the states general as lords of fiefs, to carry a hawk on their fist, or to serve personally in war, but only not to pay the *taille*, and to file themselves Messire.

The want of laws, thoroughly clear and well understood, and the variation of customs and laws, have ever been the characteristic of France. The condition of the gownmen long continued uncertain. These courts of justice, by the French called parliaments, often tried suits relating to claims to nobility which had been set up by the children of lawyers. The parliament of Paris, in 1540, decreed, that the children of John le Maitre, a king's council, should share their inheritance as nobles; and in 1578, it gave a like sentence in favour of a common counsellor, named Menager. But the learned in the law were of different opinions concerning the privileges which custom was insensibly annexing to the gown. Louet, a counsellor of the parliament, affirmed that the children of judicial officers should share as commoners, and that only the grandsons were entitled to the right of eldership, as observed among the nobility.

The opinions of the lawyers were no rule for the court, Henry III. in 1582, declaring by edict, *That no person, unless of noble descent, should henceforth assume the title of noble, and the appellation of esquire.*

Henry IV. was less rigid and more equitable, when in the edict for regulating the taxes, issued in 1600, he declared, though in terms something vague, that they who served

served the public in honourable posts, may give a beginning of nobility to their descendent.

This dispute, which had lasted ages, seemed to be closed in July 1644, under Lewis XIV. yet it proved otherwise. Here we break in on time, that we may throw the necessary light on this article. You will see in the Age of Lewis XIV. what a civil war was raised in Paris in the first years of his reign; during this war it was that the parliament of Paris, the chamber of accounts, the court of aids, and all the other provincial courts, obtained in 1644, *That the privileges of hereditary nobility, of gentlemen, and of barons of the kingdom, should descend to the children of counsellors and presidents, who had served twenty years, or who died in their posts.* Thus their rank appeared to be determined by this edict.

Could it be thought that after this Lewis XIV. in 1669, being himself present in parliament, should revoke those privileges, and continue these officers of judicature only in their ancient rights, repealing all the privileges of nobility granted to them and their descendants in 1644, and since till the year 1669?

Lewis XIV. almighty as he was, has not been able to deprive so many persons of a right, which had been given to them in his name. It is no easy matter for one man to oblige such a number of people to part with what they accounted their property. The edict of 1644 has prevailed; the courts of judicature have enjoyed the privileges of nobility, and the nation has never thought of disallowing them in their judges.

Whilst the magistrates of the superior courts had been disputing about their station ever since the year 1300, the burgeses of towns, together with their principal officers, were under the like uncertainty. Charles V. surnamed the Wise, to ingratiate himself with the Parisians, granted them several honorary privileges, as to use coats of arms, and to hold fiefs, without paying the fine of franc-fiefs. But this privilege Henry III. limited to the mayor and four aldermen. The mayors and aldermen of several cities had the same privileges, some by ancient custom, others by patent.

The most ancient grant of nobility in France, to a quill employment, was to the king's secretaries: they were originally what the secretaries of state are now, and were called *Clercs du Secret*; and as they wrote under the king, and drew up his orders, some honourable distinction was proper. This right of nobility, after twenty years service, served as a precedent and model for the judicial officers.

Herein is principally seen the extreme variation of the French customs. The secretaries of state, who at first only signed instruments, and could give them no authenticity, only as privy clerks and notaries to the king, are now grown to be ministers, and the almighty organs of the almighty prerogative. They have farther acquired the title of monseigneur, formerly given only to princes and knights; and the king's secretaries have been degraded to the chancery, where their sole business is to sign patents. Their useless number has been increased

to

to three hundred, merely to get money; and by this paltry expedient, French nobility is perpetuated in near six thousand families, the heads of which successively purchased those employments.

Patents of nobility have been granted to a prodigious number of other professions; bankers, surgeons, merchants, officers of a prince's household, and clerks; and, after some generations, they stile themselves most high and mighty lords. These titles have very much lessened the ancient nobility, without doing any great honour to the more recent.

In course of time the personal service of knights and esquires totally ceasing, and the states general being no longer held, the privileges of the whole nobility, ancient and modern, are reduced to paying the capitation in lieu of the *taille*. They whose father was not an alderman, counsellor, nor had been ennobled, were denoted by names now become reproachful, as *villain* and *roturier*.

Villain comes from *ville*, a town, as formerly only the nobles were the owners of castles; and *roturier* from *rupture de terre*, breaking ground, or tillage, otherwise called *roture*. Thus it was often the case, that a lieutenant general or a gallant officer, who had received many an honourable wound in the service, was subject to the *taille*, whilst the son of a clerk was on a footing, with respect to immunities, with the principal officers of state. It was not till 1752, that this derogatory error was mended, through the representations of M. d'Argenson.

The ridiculous multiplicity of nobles, without either offices or real nobility; this degrading distinction between the ennobled idler, who contributes nothing to the state, and the useful *roturier*, who pays the *taille*; those offices which are set to sale, and have the empty title of esquire annexed to them; nothing of all this is seen elsewhere; it is a wretched blunder in government to debase the greater part of a nation. In England forty livres a year in land makes a man *homo ingenuus*, a free Englishman, with a vote in choosing a representative in parliament. All who are not merely craftsmen, or artificers, are accounted gentlemen; and strictly speaking, the only real nobles are they who sit in the house of lords, representing the ancient barons and peers of the state.

In many countries, privileges of blood give no manner of superiority or advantage; a man is considered only in the quality of a citizen; nay, at Basil no gentleman is capable of holding any post, unless he renounces all his privileges as a gentleman: yet in all free states, the magistrates stile themselves noble; and, certainly, to have been, from father to son, at the head of a republic, is a very glorious nobility. But through custom and prejudice, five hundred years of such nobleness would in France be no exemption from the *taille*, nor gain admittance into the poorest chapter in Germany.

These usages are the very picture of vanity and fickleness; and this is the least tragical part of the history of mankind.

On the true Derivation of some modern English words. From Burn's History of the Poor Laws.

IN the rating of wages it is set forth, how much by the day shall be taken by tilers, and other coverers of fern and straw, and their knaves.—The Saxon *knapa*, or *knafa*, signifies a *servant*. And the thatchers to this day have an instrument that holds their straw, which they call *knape*. What is observable here is, the generous notions entertained by our ancestors, with respect to an action base and ignoble: they would not suppose it to belong to a freeman, but appropriated it to the inferior rank of people. A *knaveish* action was such as was fit only for one of the meaner servants. A *villain* was a degree lower than the thatcher's servant; for he was the drudge of his lord, not even susceptible of property in many cases, but was himself of the goods and chattels of his master; therefore an offence, accompanied with extraordinary aggravation, was termed *villainous*: as much as to say, iniquity degrades a man, and ranks him among the vulgar.—So a man who was devoid of courage, and consequently unfit for the military profession, was denominated a *cow-herd* (for that, most probably, is the genuine etymology of what we now call *coward*).—On the other hand, these inferior persons were not behind-hand with the great men (for there never wanted humour even among the common people): if a man was half an idiot, or remarkably deformed in body, they would style him *my lord*. And by way of ridicule of their jovialness and hospi-

tility, when a man was in liquor, they would call him *as drunk as a lord*.—These, and many other like expressions and customs, which have come down to our days, were originally feudal, having relation to the military institution and the distinction betwixt lord and vassal.

And here it is observable upon the subject of cloathing, how the restrictions as to the goodness or quantity of cloth in their garments, vanished by degrees, as manufactures increased; until at length, in queen Elizabeth's reign, the current received a contrary direction, and the wearing of the manufactures was enjoined: concerning which the first act that hath occurred is that 13 Eliz. c. 19. by which it is required, that every person above the age of six years (except maidens, ladies, and gentlewomen; and lords, knights, and gentlemen of 20 marks a year) shall wear upon the sabbath, and holiday, upon their head, one cap of wool, knit, thicked, and dressed in England, on pain of 3s. 4d. The form of which cap may be seen in some of the pictures of those days.

And here curiosity will suggest certain reflections upon that noble subject of painting. Why are persons pictured in Grecian or Roman habits, and in such habits as never were worn in any age? Would it not be infinitely more entertaining, to see every person drawn in his own proper dress? It would be a work becoming the pencil of a skilful artist, from such paintings as may be yet found, from history, from acts of parliament, and other sumptuary laws, to exhibit a series of persons, of both sexes, in the habits of their respective ages, at proper intervals.

A TABLE

A TABLE exhibiting the Standard Weight, Value, and a comparative View of English Silver Money from King William I. Anno 1066, to King George III. Anno 1763.

Years of the Kings and Queens Reigns, or the Dates of the several Mint Indentures.	Anni Regnorum.	A.D.	Standard of the silver at each period.		Number of shillings, &c. the pound, or 12 ounces Troy of standard silver, has been coined into at each period.		Weight of 20 shillings in the fine silver contained in twenty shillings in tale at each period.		Value of the same 20 shillings in our present money.		Proportion of money at each period to our present money.		Value of the ounce of standard silver in present money.		Value of the ounce of fine silver at each period.	
			Oz.	Dwts.	s.	d.	Oz.	Dwts.	Grs.	l.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
William I.	William II.	1066	11 2	0 18	XXI	IV	11	5	0	10	8	1 1/2	5	2	1	11 1/2
		1087	11 2	0 18	XX	0	12	0	0	11	2	0	5	2	1	9 1/2
28th Edw. I.	20th Edw. III.	1300	11 2	0 18	XX	III	11	1	1	10	19	6	5	2	1	9 1/2
		1347	11 2	0 18	XXII	VI	10	13	8	9	17	8	5	2	2	10 3/8
27th same	18th Richard II.	1354	11 2	0 18	XXV	0	9	12	0	8	17	14 1/2	5	2	2	3
		1395	11 2	0 18	XXXII	0	7	10	0	6	18	18	5	2	2	10 3/8
3d Henry IV.	13th same	1402	11 2	0 18	XXX	0	8	2	0	7	8	0	5	2	2	8 1/2
		1412	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
9th Henry V.	1st Henry VI.	1422	11 2	0 18	XXX	0	8	0	0	7	8	0	5	2	2	8 1/2
		1426	11 2	0 18	XXX	0	8	0	0	7	8	0	5	2	2	8 1/2
4th same	24th same	1446	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
		1461	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
39th same	4th Edw. VII.	1464	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
		1482	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
5, 8, 11, 16, & 22d	1st Richard III.	1483	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
		1494	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
9th Henry VII.		1494	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2
		1494	11 2	0 18	XXXVII	VI	6	8	0	5	18	10	5	2	3	4 1/2

20th same	1505	11	2	0	18	XXXX	0	6	0	0	5	11	0	1	11	0	1-5500	5	2	3	$7\frac{7}{8}$
1st Henry VIII.	1509	11	2	0	18	XXXXV	0	5	6	16	4	18	16	1	7	$6\frac{1}{2}$	1-3776	5	2	4	$0\frac{1}{2}$
23d & 18th same	1532	10	0	2	0	XXXXVIII	0	5	0	0	4	3	8	1	3	$3\frac{1}{4}$	1-1635	4	$7\frac{7}{8}$	4	$9\frac{1}{8}$
24th same	1543	6	0	6	0	XXXXVIII	0	5	0	0	0	10	0	0	13	$11\frac{1}{2}$	0-6984	2	$9\frac{1}{4}$	8	0
36th same	1545	4	0	8	0	XXXXVIII	0	5	0	0	1	13	8	0	9	$3\frac{1}{4}$	0-4656	1	$10\frac{3}{8}$	12	0
37th same	1547	6	0	6	0	XXXXVIII	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1st. Edw. IX.	1548	6	0	9	0	LXXII	0	3	6	16	1	13	8	0	9	$3\frac{1}{4}$	0-4656	2	$9\frac{1}{2}$	12	0
2d same	1549	3	0	9	0	LXXII	0	4	0	0	0	16	16	0	4	$7\frac{1}{2}$	0-2328	1	$4\frac{3}{4}$	24	0
3d same	1551	11	1	1	0	LX	0	4	0	0	3	13	16	1	0	$6\frac{1}{2}$	1-0286	5	$1\frac{1}{4}$	5	$5\frac{1}{8}$
5th same	1553	11	0	1	0	LX	0	4	0	0	3	13	8	1	0	$5\frac{1}{2}$	0-0239	5	$1\frac{1}{2}$	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$
6th same	1553	11	0	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
1st Mary I.	1560	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
2d Elizabeth	1583	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
19th & 25th same	1601	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
43d same	1605	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
2d James I.	1627	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
2d Charles I.	1661	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
12th Charles II.	1671	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
22d same	1685	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
1st James II. to the	1763	11	2	0	18	LX	0	4	0	0	3	14	0	1	0	8	1-0333	5	2	5	$4\frac{7}{8}$
2d George III.																					

Example. The famous chapel (adjoining to the east end of Westminster Abbey) built by King Henry VII. A. D. 1503, cost 14,000 l. which sum, multiplied by 1,6531, answers to 23,143 l. of our present money; which is equivalent in point of expence of living, to 90,000 l. in our days. — *Vide Fleetwood's Chronicon Preciosum*, and *Anderson's Historical and Chronological Deduction of Commerce, &c.*

Every single article of the above table, I have calculated from *datas* collected chiefly from those excellent coin notes inserted at the end of each reign in Nic. Tindal's translation of Rapin's History of England, 2d edit. fol. London, 1732; but not without consulting Bishop Fleetwood's *Chronicon Preciosum*; Ste. Martin Leake's History of English coins; and others. *H—b, OÆ. 23, 1764.*

GOTHICK.

Of Surnames; from Bigland's observations on Marriages, &c.

NAMES, called in Latin *nomena, quasi notamina*, were first imposed for the distinction of persons, which we now call Christian names; after, for difference of families, which we call surnames, and have been especially respected, as whereon the glory and credit of men is grounded, and by which the same is conveyed to the knowledge of posterity; and every person had in the beginning one only proper name, as Adam, Joseph, &c.

Camden observes, he never could find an hereditary surname in England before the conquest: the surnames in Doomsday book were brought in by the Normans, who not long before had taken them, but they were mostly noted with a *de*, as John de Babington, Walter de Hugget, Nicholas de Yatemán, &c. or Ricardus filius Roberti, &c. and that they were not settled among the common people till about the reign of king Edward II. Surnames not from fire, but because superadded to the Christian name. Places anciently gave names to persons, and not the contrary: William son of Roger Fitz Valerine, in the time of king Henry I. being born in the castle of Howard in Wales, did from thence assume the name of the place of his birth, and transmitted the same to his posterity. Edward of Caernarvon, so called from the place of his nativity; so Thomas of Brotherton, from the village in Yorkshire wherein he was born: and John of Gaunt, from the city of Gaunt in Flanders, where he was born.

The custom of taking names from towns and villages in England is a sufficient proof of the ancient descents of those families who are still inhabitants of the same places. Some took their names from their offices; others from forests; others from woods; others from hills, dales, trees, &c. others from fishes.

From the alteration of names in early times it is, that at this day many families, who have neglected to keep up their pedigrees, are at a loss to account for the similar bearing of arms, whose names are so widely different, while yet they might all originally be descended from one and the same common ancestor. Little (for instance) would any one think to look for the family and arms of Botteville, in the present viscount Weymouth; and this only, because in the reign of Edward IV. John de Botteville resided at one of the inns at court, and from thence was named John of Th'Inne (Thynne); and as little would he suspect that that poor deserted and exposed infant at Newark upon Trent, commonly called *Tom among us*, should afterwards be metamorphosed into the great Dr. Thomas Magnus.

Of ancient Palaces, their gardens and embellishments.

THE hotel de St. Paul, built by Charles V. was, as is specified in his edict of 1364, intended to be the hotel of great diversions. Like all the royal houses of those times, it had large towers: such additaments being thought to give an air of domination and majesty to the building. The gardens,
in-

instead of yews and lindens, were planted with apple, pear, and cherry trees, and vines, besides beds of rosemary and lavender, pease and beans, and very large arbours or bowers. The inner courts were lined with pigeon-houses, and full of poultry, which the king's tenants were obliged to send, and here they were fattened for his table, and those of his household. The beams and joists in the principal apartments were decorated with tin fleur de lys's gilt. All the windows had iron bars, with a wire lattice to keep the pigeons from coming to do their ordure in the rooms. The glazing was like that of our ancient churches, painted with coats of arms, emblems, and saints. The seats were joint stools, forms, and benches; the king had armed chairs, with red leather and silk fringes. The beds were called couches, when ten or twelve feet square, and those of only six feet square, couchettes; these large dimensions suited a custom which subsisted for a long time in France, that guests particularly valued were kept all night, and in the same bed with the master of the house. Charles V. used to dine about eleven, supped at seven, and all the court were usually in bed by nine in winter, and ten in summer. "The queen, (says Christina Pilan) agreeable to an old and laudable custom, for preventing any idle or loose thought at table, had a learned man, who during the meal related the actions, or made an eulogium of some deceased person, especially of one eminent in piety." It was in Charles's reign that the mode arose of emblazoning apparel; the women wore their husband's shield on the right side of

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their gowns, and their own on the left. This fashion lasted near a century.

Abstract of the statutes relating to the Brewery at Paris, made in the year 1268, in the reign of St. Louis, and remaining in force to this day; some of which perhaps it would be well to adopt in England.

1. **N**O one shall brew beer, or remove it in drays, or otherwise, on Sundays, or on the solemn feasts of the holy virgin.

2. No one shall set up in the brewery who has not served a five years apprenticeship, and been three years a partner with a regular brewer.

3. Nothing shall enter into the composition of beer but good malt and hops, well gathered, picked, and cured, without any mixture of buck-wheat, darnel, &c. to which end the hops shall be inspected by juries to see that they are not used after being heated, mouldy, damp, or otherwise damaged.

4. No beer yest shall be hawked about the streets, but shall be all sold in the brew-houses to bakers and pastry cooks, and to no others.

5. Beer yest brought by foreigners shall be inspected by a jury before it is exposed to sale.

6. No brewer shall keep in or about his brewhouse any cows, oxen, hogs, geese, ducks, or poultry, as being inconsistent with cleanliness.

7. There shall not be made in any brewhouse more than one brewing of fifteen septiers at the most, of ground malt, in a day.

N

[This

[This article, I believe, is not kept up to.]

8. Casks, barrels, and other vessels made to hold beer shall be marked with the brewer's mark in the presence of a jury.

9. No brewer shall take away from a house he serves with beer, any vessels which do not belong to him.

10. Those who sell beer by retail shall be subject to the inspection of juries.

11. No one shall be a partner but with a master brewer.

12. No master brewer shall have more than one apprentice at a time, which apprentice shall not be turned over without the consent of a jury. [There has been an exception to the former part of this article for a few years past; a man may now have two apprentices, provided one of them commences his first year when the other commences his fifth.]

13. No one shall take a partner who has quitted his master, without the consent of such master.

14. A widow may employ servants in brewing, but may not take an apprentice.

15. Master brewers shall not entice away one another's apprentices nor servants.

16. There shall be three masters elected for jurymen, two of which shall be changed every two years.

17. Such jurymen shall have a power to inspect in the city and suburbs.

In Paris beer is subject to pay a duty; and that the king may not be defrauded, the brewer is obliged, every brewing, to give notice to a commissioner, of the day and hour he shall kindle the fire of his boiler, under the penalty of fine and confiscation.

As the business of brewing cannot be carried on without employing large quantities of corn, it is usual, in times of scarcity, for the king to put a stop to it for a certain number of weeks.

Several years ago there was a great stir about the brewers vending their yeast to the bakers and pastry-cooks, under pretence that it was unwholesome; but the medical faculty of Paris decided to the contrary.

A description of the most honourable City of London, written originally in Latin by William Fitzstephen, a monk of Canterbury, who flourished in the reign of Henry II.

The situation thereof.

AMongst the noble cities of the world, honoured by fame, the city of London is the one principal seat in the kingdom of England, whose renown is spread abroad very far; but she transporteth her wares and commodities much farther, and advanceth her head so much the higher. Happy she is in the wholesomeness of the air, in the Christian religion, her munition also and strength, the nature of her situation, the honour of her citizens, the chastity of her matrons. Very pleasant also in her sports and pastimes, and replenished with honourable personages, all which I think meet proper severally to consider.

The temperateness of the air.

In this place the calmness of the air doth mollify men's minds, not corrupting them with venereal lusts, but preserving them from savage and rude behaviour, and seasoning

soning their inclinations with a more kind and free temper.

Of Christian Religion there.

There is in the church of St. Paul a bishop's see: it was formerly a metropolitan; and, as it is thought, shall recover the said dignity again, if the citizens shall return back into the island; except, perhaps, the archiepiscopal title of St. Thomas the martyr, and his bodily presence, do perpetuate this honour to Canterbury, where now his reliques are. But seeing St. Thomas hath graced both these cities, namely, London with his birth, and Canterbury with his death; one place may alledge more against the other, in respect of the sight of that saint, with the accession of holiness. Now, concerning the worship of God in the Christian faith; there are in London and the suburbs 13 greater conventual churches, besides 126 lesser parish churches: [139 churches in all.]

Of the strength and scite of the city.

It hath on the east part a tower palatine, very large and very strong; whose court and walls rise up from a deep foundation; the mortar is tempered with the blood of beasts. On the west are two castles well fenced. The wall of the city is high and great, continued with seven gates, which are made double, and on the north distinguished with turrets by spaces. Likewise on the south London hath been inclosed with walls and towers, but the large river of Thames, well stored with fish, and in which the tide ebbs and flows, by continuance of time, hath washed, worn away, and cast down those walls. Farther above, in the west part, the king's palace is eminently seated

upon the same river; an incomparable building, having a wall before it and some bulwarks; it is two miles from the city, continued with a suburb full of people.

Of the gardens planted.

Every where without the houses of the suburbs, the citizens have gardens and orchards planted with trees, large, beautiful, and one joining to another.

Of their pastures.

On the north side are fields for pasture, and open meadows, very pleasant; among which the river waters do flow, and the wheels of the mills are turned about with a delightful noise. Very near lieth a large forest, in which are woody groves of wild beasts; in the covers whereof do lurk bucks and does, wild boars and bulls.

Of the fields.

The arable lands are no hungry pieces of gravel ground; but like the rich fields of Asia, which bring plentiful corn, and fill the barns of those that till them with an excellent crop of the fruits of Ceres.

Of their wells.

There are also about London, on the north of the suburbs, choice fountains of water, sweet, wholesome, and clear, streaming forth among the glistening pebble stones: in this number, Holywell, Clarkenwell, and St. Clement's well, are of most note, and frequented above the rest, when scholars, and the youth of the city take the air abroad in the summer evenings.

Of the citizens' honour.

This city is honoured with her men, graced with her arms, and peopled with a multitude of inhabitants. In the fatal wars under king Stephen there went out to a

muster, men fit for war, esteemed to the number of 20,000 horsemen armed and 60,000 footmen. The citizens of London are known in all places, and respected above all other citizens for their civil demeanour, their good apparel, their table, and their discourse.

Of the chastity of their matrons.

The matrons of this city may be paralleled with the Sabine women.

Of their schools.

In London three famous schools are kept at three principal churches, St. Paul's, the Holy Trinity, and St. Martin's, which they retain by privilege and ancient dignity: yet, for the most part, by favour of some persons, or some teachers, who are known and famed for their philosophy; there are other schools there upon good-will and sufferance. Upon the holidays, the masters with their scholars celebrate assemblies at the festival churches. The scholars dispute there for exercise sake; some use demonstrations, others topical and probable argument; some practise enthymemes, others do better use perfect syllogisms; some exercise themselves in dispute for ostentation, which is practised among such as strive together for victory; others dispute for truth, which is the grace of perfection. The sophisters, which are dissemblers, turn verbalists, and are magnified when they overflow in speech and abundance of words; some also are entrapped with deceitful arguments. Sometimes certain orators, with rhetorical orations, speak handsomely to persuade, being careful to observe the precepts of art, who omit no matter contingent. The boys of divers

schools wrangle together in verifying, or canvass the principles of grammar, or dispute the rules of the præterperfect and future tenses. Some there are that in epigrams, rhimes, and verses, use that trivial way of abuse. These do freely abuse their fellows, suppressing their names, with a fescennine railing liberty: these cast out most abusive jests; and with socratical witty expressions, they touch the vices of their fellows, or perhaps of their superiors, or fall upon them with a satirical bitterness, and with bolder reproaches than is fit. The hearers, prepared for laughter, make themselves merry in the mean time.

How the affairs of the city are disposed.

The several craftsmen, the several sellers of wares, and workmen for hire, all are distinguished every morning by themselves, in their places as well as trades. Besides, there is in London upon the river's bank a public place of cookery, among the wines to be sold in the ships, and in the wine cellars. There every day we may call for any dish of meat, roast, fried, or boiled; fish both small and great; ordinary flesh for the poorer sort, and more dainty for the rich, as venison and fowl. If friends come upon a sudden, wearied with travel, to a citizen's house, and they be loth to wait for curious preparations and dressings of fresh meat, let the servants give them water to wash, and bread to stay their stomach, and in the mean time they run to the water side, where all things that can be desired are at hand. Whatsoever multitude of soldiers, or other strangers enter into the city at any hour of the day

day or night, or else are about to depart, they may turn in, bait here, and refresh themselves to their content, and so avoid long fasting, and not go away without their dinner. If any desire to fit their dainty tooth, they take a goose; they need not to long for the fowl of Africa, no, nor the rare Godwit of Ionia. This is the public cookery, and very convenient for the state of the city, and belongs to it. Hence it is, we read in Plato's Georgias, that next to the physician's art is the trade of cooks.

Of Smithfield.

Without one of the gates is a certain field, plain, [or smooth] both in name and situation. Every Friday, except some greater festival come in the way, there is a fine sight of good horses to be sold: many come out of the city to buy or look on, to wit, earls, barons, knights, citizens, all resorting thither. It is a pleasant sight there to behold the animals, well fleshed, sleek, and shining, delightfully walking, and their feet on either side up and down together by turns: or else trotting horses, which are more convenient for men that bear arms; these, although they set a little harder, go away readily, and lift up and set down together the contrary feet on either side. Here are also young colts of a good breed, that have not been well accustomed to the bridle; these fling about, and by mounting bravely shew their mettle. Here are principal horses, strong and well limbed. Here also are breast-horses, perhaps race-horses, fit to be joined by couples, very fair and handsome, and sleek about the ears, carrying their

necks aloft, being well fleshed, and round about the buttocks. In another part stand the country people with cattle, and commodities of the field, large swine, and kine with their udders strutting out, fair bodied oxen, and the woolly flock. There are also cart horses fit for the dray, or the plough, or the chariot: and some mares big with foal; together with others that have their wanton colts following them close at their side.

Concerning shipping and merchandize.

To this city merchants bring in wares by ships from every nation under heaven. The Arabian sends his gold, the Sabeian his frankincense and spices, the Scythian, arms; oil of palms from the plentiful wood: Babylon her fat soil, and Nylus his precious stones: The Seres send purple garments; they of Norway and Russia, trouts, furs, and fables; and the French their wines.

Its antiquity and government.

According to the report of chronicles, it is more ancient than the city of Rome; for both being descended from the same Trojan stock: Brute builded this, before Remus and Romulus did the other. Whence still it useth the same ancient laws and common institutions. For this our city, like to that, is distinguished by wards and several limits; it hath sheriffs every year, answerable to their consuls; it hath aldermen, enjoying the dignity of senators, besides inferior magistrates; it hath also common sewers and conveyances for waters in the streets. Concerning causes in question, there are several places and courts for causes deliberative, demonstrative,

and judicial: upon their set days also they have their common council and great assemblies.

The only plagues of London are immoderate drinking of idle fellows and frequent fires.

Of sports and pastimes.

Every Sunday in Lent, after dinner, a company of young men ride out into the fields on horses which are fit for war, and principal runners: every one among them is taught to run the rounds with his horse.

The citizens sons issue out through the gates by troops, furnished with lances and warlike shields: the younger sort have their pikes not headed with iron, where they make a representation of battle, and exercise a skirmish. There resort to this exercise many courtiers, when the king lies near hand, and young striplings out of the families of barons and great persons, which have not yet attained to the warlike girdle, to train and skirmish. Hope of victory inflames every one: the neighing and fierce horses bestir their joints, and chew their bridles, and cannot endure to stand still; at last they begin their race, and then the young men divide their troops; some labour to outstrip their leaders, and cannot reach them; others fling down their fellows, and get beyond them.

In Easter holidays they counterfeit a sea fight: a pole is set up in the middle of the river, with a target well fastened thereon, and a young man stands in a boat which is rowed with oars, and driven on with the tide, who with his spear hits the target in his passage; with which blow, if he

breaks the spear and stand upright, so that he hold footing, he hath his desire; but if his spear continue unbroken by the blow, he is tumbled into the water, and his boat passeth clear away: but on either side this target two ships stand in-ward, with many young men ready to take him up after he is sunk, as soon as he appeareth again on the top of the water: the spectators stand upon the bridge, and in solars upon the river to behold these things, being prepared for laughter.

Upon the holidays all summer, the youth is exercised in leaping, shooting, wrestling, casting of stones, and throwing of javelins fitted with loops for the purpose, which they strive to sling beyond the mark: they also use bucklers, like fighting men. As for the maidens, they have their exercise of dancing and tripping till moonlight.

In winter, almost every holiday before dinner, the foaming boars fight for their heads, and prepare with deadly tusks to be made bacon: or else some lusty bulls or huge bears are baited with dogs.

When that great moor which washed Moorfields, at the north wall of the city, is frozen over, great companies of young men go to sport upon the ice, and bind to their shoes, bones, as the legs of some beasts, and hold stakes in their hands, headed with sharp iron, which sometimes they strike against the ice, and these men go on with speed, as doth a bird in the air, or darts shot from some warlike engine: sometimes two men set themselves at a distance, and run one against another, as it were at tilt, with these stakes, where-

wherewith one or both parties are thrown down, not without some hurt to their bodies; and after their fall, by reason of their violent motion, are carried a good distance one from another; and wheresoever the ice doth touch their head, it rubs off all the skin and lays it bare; and if one fall upon his leg or arm, it is usually broken: but young men being greedy of honour and desirous of victory, do thus exercise themselves in counterfeited battles, that they may bear the brunt more strongly when they come to it in good earnest.

Many citizens take delight in birds, as sparrow-hawks, goshawks, and such like, and in dogs to hunt in the woody ground. The citizens have authority to hunt in Middlesex, Hertfordshire, all the Chilterns, and in Kent, as far as Gray-Water.

Natives of London.

The city of London hath brought forth some who have subdued many kingdoms, and the empire of Rome

to themselves; and many others, who, being lords of this world, were deified in another.

And in the times of christianity it brought forth the noble emperor Constantine, who gave the city of Rome and all the Imperial arms to God, and to St. Peter, and Silvester the Pope, whose stirrup he refused not to hold, and pleased rather to be called Defender of the holy Roman church, than emperor of the world. And lest the peace of our lord the Pope should suffer any disturbance by the noise of secular affairs, he left the city, and bestowed it on the Pope, and founded the city of Constantinople for his own habitation. London also in these latter times hath brought forth famous and magnificent princes: Maud the empress, king Henry the Third, and Thomas the archbishop, a glorious martyr of Christ, than whom no man was more innocent, or more devoted to the general good of the Latin world.

A Declaration, or briefe Collection of one Year's Expence for all the ordinarie Dinners and Suppers, with her Majestie (Queen ELIZABETH's) Breakfast, and Breakfast for the Guard, furnished with Bread, Beere, Ale, Gascoigne Wine, and with all Manner of Viſuals of Fleſh and Fiſh, rated accordinge to the Market Prices, at bigheſt Condition; wherein is ſett downe what the Charge of one Meſſe of everie Dielt is in one Fleſh Day and one Fiſh Day, and ſo 220 Fleſh, and 145 Fiſh Days, and then for 365 Days, being one whole Year.

				In 365 Days, beinge one Year.			
				l.	s.	d.	
Her Majestis diett for break- fast, dinner, and supper,	For 1 flesh day	{ 11 7 2 }	For 220 flesh days	{ 2493 16 8 }	—	3804 19 5	The Queen's Majestie.
	For 1 fish day	{ 9 11 9 }	For 145 fish days	{ 1390 9 9 }	—	966 13 6	Lord Steward.
A diett of 10 and 10 dishes dinner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	{ 3 1 8 1/2 }	For 220 flesh days	{ 678 15 10 }	—	966 13 6	Lord Chamberlain.
	For 1 fish day	{ 1 19 8 1/2 }	For 145 fish days	{ 287 17 8 1/2 }	—	966 13 6	Mr. Thresorer.
A diett of 7 and 7 dishes, din- ner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	{ 1 17 4 }	For 220 flesh days	{ 410 13 4 }	—	591 6 3	Mr. Comptroller.
	For 1 fish day	{ 1 4 11 }	For 145 fish days	{ 180 12 11 }	—	591 6 3	Ladies in ye prefens.
A diett of 6 and 6 dishes, din- ner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	{ 1 10 3 1/4 }	For 220 flesh days	{ 333 4 2 }	—	591 6 3	Lady Loxborough.
	For 1 fish day	{ 1 1 9 1/2 }	For 145 fish days	{ 157 19 9 1/2 }	—	591 6 3	Maids of honor.
A diett of 5 and 5 dishes, din- ner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	{ 1 5 5 1/2 }	For 220 flesh days	{ 280 0 1 }	—	591 6 3	Mr. Cofferer.
	For 1 fish day	{ 0 17 6 1/2 }	For 145 fish days	{ 127 3 0 1/2 }	—	591 6 3	To Mrs. of household.
A diett of 4 and 4 dishes, din- ner and supper,	For 1 flesh day	{ 0 13 6 1/2 }	For 220 flesh days	{ 148 19 2 }	—	491 3 1 1/2	Clerks kitchen.
	For 1 fish day	{ 0 9 3 }	For 145 fish days	{ 67 1 3 }	—	407 4 4 1/2	Gentlemen Vfhers.
						407 4 4 1/2	Chaplains and Subamu.
						407 4 4 1/2	Prefens waiters, or second of ladys.
						407 4 4 1/2	Phiftion.
						407 4 4 1/2	The Robbs.
						407 4 4 1/2	Mr. Cooke.
						216 0 5	Mrs. Anflowe.

MISCELLANEOUS ESSAYS.

Remarks on Simplicity in Writing.

IF we examine the writers whose compositions have stood the test of ages, and obtained that highest honour, “the concurrent approbation of distant times and nations,” we shall find that the character of simplicity is the unvarying circumstance which alone hath been able to gain this universal homage from mankind. Among the Greeks, whose writers in general are of the simple kind, the divinest poet, the most commanding orator, the finest historian, and deepest philosopher, are, above the rest, conspicuously eminent in this great quality. The Roman writers rise towards perfection according to that measure of simplicity which they mingle in their works: indeed they are all inferior to the Greek models. But who will deny that Lucretius, Horace, Virgil, Livy, Terence, Tully, are at once the simplest and best of Roman writers? unless we add the noble annalist who appeared in after times; who, notwithstanding the political turn of his genius, which sometimes interferes, is admirable in this great quality; and by it, far superior to his contemporaries. It is this one circumstance that hath raised the venerable Dante, the father of modern poetry, above the succeeding poets

of his country, who could never long maintain the local and temporary honours bestowed upon them; but have fallen under that just neglect, which time will ever decree to those who desert a just simplicity for the florid colourings of style, contrasted phrases, affected conceits, the mere trappings of composition and Gothic minutiae. It is this hath given to Boileau the most lasting wreath in France, and to Shakespear and Milton in England; especially to the last, whose writings are more unmixed in this respect, and who had formed himself entirely on the simple model of the best Greek writers and the sacred Scriptures. As it appears from these instances that simplicity is the only universal characteristic of just writing; so the superior eminence of the sacred Scriptures in this prime quality hath been generally acknowledged. One of the greatest critics in antiquity, himself conspicuous in the sublime and simple manner, hath borne this testimony to the writings of Moses and St. Paul; and by parity of reason we must conclude, that had he been conversant with the other sacred writers, his taste and candour would have allowed them the same encomium.

It hath been often observed, even by writers of no mean rank, that the “Scriptures suffer in their
“ credit

credit by the disadvantage of a literal version, while other ancient writings enjoy the advantage of a free and embellished translation." But in reality those gentlemen's concern is ill placed and groundless: for the truth is, That most other writings are impaired by a literal translation; whereas, giving only a due regard to the idiom of different languages, the sacred writings, when literally translated, are then in their full perfection."

Now this is an internal proof, that in all other writings there is a mixture of local, relative, exterior ornament, which is often lost in the transfusion from one language to another. But the internal beauties, which depend not on the particular construction of tongues, no change of tongue can destroy. Hence the Bible composition preserves its native beauty and strength alike in every language, by the sole energy of undorned phrase, natural images, height of sentiment, and great simplicity.

It is in this respect like a rich vein of gold, which under the severest trials of heat, cold, and moisture, retains its original weight and splendor, without either loss or alloy; while baser metals are corrupted by earth, air, water, fire, and assimilated to the various elements through which they pass.

This circumstance then may be justly regarded as sufficient to vindicate the composition of the sacred Scriptures, as it is at once their chief excellence and greatest security. It is their excellence, it renders them intelligible and useful to all; it is their security, it prevents their being disguised

by the false and capricious ornaments of vain or weak translators. We may safely appeal to experience and fact for the confirmation of these remarks on the superior simplicity, utility, and excellence of the style of the holy Scripture. Is there any book in the world so perfectly adapted to all capacities? that contains such sublime and exalted precepts, conveyed in such an artless and intelligible strain, that can be read with such pleasure and advantage by the lettered sage and the unlettered peasant?

A Dissertation on the Gods of the ancient Heathens, and the use which Hesiod and Homer have made of them. By Dr. Peter Templeman.

IN the famous controversy in France concerning the comparative merits of the ancients and moderns, Mons. De la Motte and Madam Dacier having entered the lists, the illustrious Fenelon, archbishop of Cambray, kept up a correspondence by letters with Mons. De la Motte; and in one of the subjects of debate, viz. On the characters of the Gods and Heroes in Homer, has these words in a letter addressed to Mons. De la Motte.

“ Encore une fois j’abandonne
 “ sans peine les Dieux et les Héros
 “ d’Homere; mais ce Poëte ne
 “ les a pas faits, il a bien fallu
 “ qu’il les prît tels qu’ils les trou-
 “ voit. Leurs défauts ne sont pas
 “ les siens. Le Monde idolâtre
 “ et sans Philosophie ne lui four-
 “ nissoit que des Dieux qui désho-
 “ roit la Divinité, et que des
 “ Héros qui n’étoient guères hon-
 “ nêtes gens.——Ainsi Homere
 “ atteint

“ atteint au vari but de l'Art,
 “ quand il represente les objets
 “ avec grace, force et vivacité.
 “ Le sage et sçavant Pouffin auroit
 “ peint le Gueselin et Bouscicaud
 “ simples et couverts de fer, pen-
 “ dant que Mignard auroit peint
 “ les Courtisans du dernier siècle
 “ avec des fraises ou des colets
 “ montez ou avec des canons, des
 “ plumes, de la broderie et des
 “ cheveux frisez. Il faut observer
 “ le vrai et peindre d'après Na-
 “ ture.” *Reflexions sur la Critique*
par Monsieur De la Motte, p. 82.

Plato however speaks of Hesiod and Homer as having framed those fables of the Gods which are found in their writings,

“ Ους (videlicet μυθους) Ησίοδος
 “ τε και Ομηρος ημιν ελεγεσθην, και οι
 “ αλλοι ποιηται. ετοι γαρ πε μυθους
 “ τοις, ανθρωποις ψευδεις ΣΥΝΤΙΘΕΝ-
 “ ΤΕΣ ελεγον τε και λεγουσι.” *Vid.*
Platonis Op. Tom. 2. p. 377, et
seq. Edit. Serrani. Which (name-
ly Fables) both Hesiod and Homer
have told us, and other poets have
followed their example: for they
FRAMING false fables have publish-
ed and still continue to publish them.

Herodotus, in speaking of Hesiod and Homer in his *Euterpe*, cap. 53, says,

“ Ουτοι δε εισι οι ποιησαντες θεο-
 “ γονιην ελλησι, και τοισι θεοισι τας
 “ επωνυμιας δοντες, και τιμας τε και
 “ τεχνας διελοντες, και ειδεα αυτων
 “ σημνηναντες.” *These are the persons*
who have made a Theogony for the
Greeks, and have given additions to
the Names of the Gods, and have
distributed to them their respective
honours and employments, and have
declared their forms or appearances.

Where by the way I would observe, that both Herodotus and

Plato placed Hesiod in the order of words before Homer; from whence one would be inclined to think that they considered Hesiod somewhat prior in time to Homer.

The ingenious author of the *Enquiry into the life and writings of Homer* observes upon the passage I have cited from Herodotus, “ What he says of Hesiod and Homer must be true in one or other of these respects, that either they brought their entire System immediately from Egypt and published it in Greece, till then ignorant of religion and rites; or that without other assistance than their own wits, they contrived it wholly themselves; but they are both equally incredible.” *Vid. p. 98. 1st Edition.*

The reason assigned for this assertion, and the refinement upon it, are directly contrary not only to the words of Herodotus but also of Plato, which I have cited above: and indeed I do not see with what pretence of justice Plato could expel them from his republic, but on supposition that they were the inventors of such fables as he finds fault with.

The truth of the matter with respect to the Gods in the most ancient heathen world seems to be this: those persons who had distinguished themselves by doing some acts of public utility, or were endued with some extraordinary perfections of mind or body, were thought to become immortal after this life, and to reside, some in the regions above, others on the earth and in the sea, and others in the infernal regions, with distinct powers and offices assigned them: although they were become immortal,

tal, yet they were still considered as having human forms, but much enlarged and more beautiful; they were considered likewise able to change their usual forms into others, either of men or brutes, and to become visible or invisible as they chose. Besides this, they were considered as having the same passions, vices, and frailties, as when they were in this life.

Cicero speaks of the origin of the Gods in the light I have represented it above in his *Tusculan Disputations*, Lib. 1. cap. 12. "Totum prope cœlum nonne humano genere completum est? Si vero scrutari vetera, et ex his ea quæ Scriptores Græciæ proderunt eruere coner, ipsi illi, majorum gentium Di qui habentur, hinc a nobis profecti in cœlum reperientur."

Such were the wild and extravagant notions of the old heathen world concerning the Gods, when Hesiod and Homer arose; who in conformity to such notions framed fables of the Gods, and introduced them into their poems; for which they were afterwards censured by the more enlightened philosophers.

Our *British* Homer, Milton, has in like manner built upon the common received notions among Christians, of angels and devils, those beautiful fables which adorn his poem; and has this advantage over the *Greecian* Homer, that not the most rigid philosopher or divine have made the least objection to them.

The method of making Gods from men was revived in the politest age of the Roman empire; and the consideration of its having been a custom from the most remote antiquity softens in some measure the extravagant compliment which Virgil pays to Augustus in the beginning of the first *Georgic*,

- "Tuque adeo, quem quæ sint habitura deorum
"Concilia, incertum est; urbisne invisere, Cæsar,
"Terrarumque velis curam: et te maximus orbis
"Auctorem frugum, tempestatumque potentem
"Accipiat, cingens materna tempora myrto:
"An Deus immensi venias maris, ac tua nautæ
"Numina sola colant: tibi serviat ultima Thule,
"Teque sibi generum Tethys emat omnibus undis."

Even so grave an historian as Tacitus does not scruple to use the expression *Divus* Augustus.

As to the expression of *πάτερ ἀνδρῶν τε θεῶν τε*, which is applied by Homer to Jupiter, it is very certain that the word *πάτερ* was frequently used to signify *superior* or *supreme**: and the word *pater* in Latin, *padre* in Italian, and *père* in French, are used in the same sense. It will occur to every one's thoughts what a pompous title is given in our own language to the venerable heads of the church:

* Mons. De la Motte very justly ridicules the notion of those who interpret the word *πάτερ* as *real Father* or *Creator* of Gods and men; in consequence of which absurd interpretation, Jupiter must have been the father of Saturn, of whom he was the son; father of Juno, who was his sister; and father of Neptune and Pluto, who were his brothers.

and no wonder that the rude and ignorant heathens should adore such as had been illustrious, after their death, when we are taught to bend the knee to those right reverend prelates whilst living.

Essays on the Importance of an inquiry into the human Mind.

THE fabric of the human mind is curious and wonderful, as well as that of the human body. The faculties of the one are with no less wisdom adapted to their several ends than the organs of the other. Nay, it is reasonable to think, that as the mind is a nobler work and of a higher order than the body, even more of the wisdom and skill of the Divine Architect had been employed in its structure; it is therefore a subject highly worthy of enquiry on its own account, but still more worthy on account of the extensive influence which the knowledge of it hath over every other branch of science.

In the arts and sciences, which have least connection with the mind, its faculties are the engines which we must employ; and the better we understand their nature and use, their defects and disorders, the more skilfully we shall apply them, and with the greater success. But in the noblest arts the mind is also the subject upon which we operate. The painter, the poet, the actor, the orator, the moralist, and the statesman, attempt to operate upon the mind in different ways and for different ends; and they succeed, according as they touch properly the strings of the human frame. Nor can their seve-

ral arts ever stand on a solid foundation, or rise to the dignity of science, until they are built on the principles of the human constitution.

Wise men now agree, or ought to agree in this, that there is but one way to the knowledge of nature's works, the way of observation and experiment. By our constitution, we have a strong propensity to trace particular facts and observations to general rules, and to apply such general rules to account for other effects, or to direct us in the production of them. This procedure of the understanding is familiar to every human creature in the common affairs of life, and it is the only one by which any real discovery in philosophy can be made.

The man who first discovered that cold freezes water, and that heat turns it into vapour, proceeded on the same general principles, and in the same method, by which Newton discovered the law of gravitation and the properties of light. His *Regulæ Philosophandi* are maxims of common sense, and are practised every day in common life; and he who philosophises by other rules, either concerning the material system, or concerning the mind, mistakes his aim.

Conjectures and theories are the creatures of men, and will always be found very unlike the creatures of God. If we would know the works of God, we must consult ourselves with attention and humility, without daring to add any thing of our's to what they declare. A just interpretation of nature is the only sound and orthodox philosophy; whatever we add of our own is apocryphal and of no authority.

All our curious theories of the formation of the earth, of the generation of animals, of the origin of natural and moral evil, so far as they go beyond a just induction from facts, are vanity and folly, no less than the Vortices of Descartes, or the Archæus of Paracelsus. Perhaps the philosophy of the mind hath been no less adulterated by theories than that of the immaterial system. The theory of ideas is indeed very antient, and hath been very universally received; but, as neither of these titles can give it authenticity, they ought not to screen it from a free and candid examination; especially in this age, when it hath produced a system of scepticism, that seems to triumph over all science, and even over the dictates of common sense.

All that we know of the body is owing to anatomical dissection and observation; and it must be by an anatomy of the mind, that we can discover its powers and principles.

But it must be acknowledged, that this kind of anatomy is much more difficult than the other; and therefore it needs not seem strange, that mankind have made less progress in it. To attend accurately to the operations of our minds, and make man the object of thought, is no easy matter even to the contemplative, and to the bulk of mankind is next to impossible.

An anatomist, who hath happy opportunities, may have access to examine, with his own eyes, and with equal accuracy, bodies of all the different ages, sexes, and conditions; so that what is defective, obscure, or preternatural in one,

may be discerned clearly, and in its most perfect state, in another. But the anatomist of the mind cannot have the same advantage: it is his own mind only that he can examine with any degree of accuracy and distinctness. This is the only subject he can look into: he may, from outward signs, collect the operations of other minds; but these signs are for the most part ambiguous, and must be interpreted by what he perceives within himself.

So that if a philosopher could delineate to us, distinctly and methodically, all the operations of the thinking principle within him, which no man was ever able to do, this would be only the anatomy of one particular subject; which would be both deficient and erroneous, if applied to human nature in general: for a little reflection may satisfy us, that the difference of minds is greater than that of any other beings, which we consider as of the same species.

Of the various powers and faculties we possess, there are some which nature seems both to have planted and reared, so as to have left nothing to human industry. Such are the powers which we have in common with the brutes, and which are necessary to the preservation of the individual, or the continuance of the kind. There are other powers of which nature hath only planted the seeds in our minds, but hath left the rearing of them to human culture. It is by the proper culture of these that we are capable of all those improvements in intellectuals, in taste, and in morals, which exalt and dignify human nature; while, on the other hand, the neglect or pervers-

perversion of them makes its degeneracy and corruption.

The two-legged animal that eats of nature's dainties what his taste or appetite craves, and satisfies his thirst at the crystal fountain, who propagates his kind as occasion and lust prompt, repels injuries, and takes alternate labour and repose, is, like a tree in the forest, purely of nature's growth. But this same savage hath within him the seeds of the logician, the man of taste and breeding, the orator, the statesman, the man of virtue, and the saint; which seeds, though planted in his mind by nature, yet, through want of culture and exercise, must lie for ever buried, and be hardly perceivable by himself or others.

The lowest degree of social life will bring to light some of those principles which lay hid in the savage state; and, according to his training, and company, and manner of life, some of them, either by their native vigour, or by the force of culture, will thrive and grow up to great perfection; others will be strangely perverted from their natural form, and others checked, or perhaps quite eradicated.

This makes human nature so various and multiform in the individuals that partake of it, that, in point of morals and intellectual endowments, it fills up all that gap which we conceive to be between brutes and devils below, and the celestial orders above; and such a prodigious diversity of minds must make it extremely difficult to discover the common principles of the species.

The language of philosophers, with regard to the original facul-

ties of the mind, is so adapted to the prevailing system, that it cannot fit any other; like a coat that fits the man for whom it was made, and shews him to advantage, which yet will fit very awkward upon one of a different make, although perhaps as handsome and as well proportioned. It is hardly possible to make any innovation in our philosophy concerning the mind and its operations, without using new words and phrases, or giving a different meaning to those that are received; a liberty which, even when necessary, creates prejudice and misconstruction, and which must wait the sanction of time to authorise it. For innovations in language, like those in religion and government, are always suspected and disliked by the many, till use hath made them familiar, and prescription hath given them a title.

If the original perceptions and notions of the mind were to make their appearance single and unmixed, as we first received them from the hand of nature, one accustomed to reflection would have less difficulty in tracing them; but before we are capable of reflection, they are so mixed, compounded, and decomposed, by habits, associations, and abstractions, that it is hard to know what they were originally. The mind may in this respect be compared to an apothecary or chymist, whose materials indeed are furnished by nature; but for the purposes of his art, he mixes, compounds, dissolves, evaporates, and sublimates them, till they put on a quite different appearance; so that it were very difficult to know what they were at first, and much more

more to bring them back to their original and natural form. And this work of the mind is not carried on by deliberate acts of mature reason, which we might recollect, but by means of instincts, habits, associations, and other principles, which operate before we come to the use of reason; so that it is extremely difficult for the mind to return upon its own footsteps, and trace back those operations which have employed it, since it first began to think and to act.

Could we obtain a distinct and full history of all that hath passed in the mind of a child from the beginning of life and sensation, till it grows up to the use of reason; how its infant faculties began to work, and how they brought forth and ripened all the various notions, opinions, and sentiments, which we find in ourselves when we come to be capable of reflection; this would be a treasure of natural history, which would probably give more light into the human faculties, than all the systems of philosophers about them since the beginning of the world. But it is in vain to wish for what nature has not put within the reach of our power. Reflection, the only instrument by which we can discern the powers of the mind, comes too late to observe the progress of nature in raising them from their infancy to perfection.

It must therefore require great caution, and a great application of mind, for a man, that is grown up in all the prejudices of education, fashion, and philosophy, to unravel his notions and opinions, till he finds out the simple and original

principles of his constitution, of which no account can be given but the will of our Maker. This may be truly called an analysis of the human faculties; and, till this is performed, it is in vain we expect any just system of the mind; that is, an enumeration of the original powers and laws of our constitution, and an explication from them of the various phenomena of human nature.

Success in an inquiry of this kind, is not in human power to command: but perhaps it is possible, by caution and humility, to avoid error and delusion. The labyrinth may be too intricate and the thread too fine to be traced through all its windings; but, if we stop where we can trace it no farther, and secure the ground we have gained, there is no harm done; a quicker eye may in time trace it further.

It is genius, and not the want of it, that adulterates philosophy, and fills it with error and false theory. A creative imagination disdains the mean offices of digging for a foundation, of removing rubbish, and carrying materials; leaving these servile employments to the drudges in science, it plans a design, and raises a fabric. Invention supplies materials where they are wanting, and fancy adds colouring, and every befitting ornament. The work pleases the eye, and wants nothing but solidity and a good foundation: it seems even to vie with the works of nature, till the envious blast of some succeeding architect blows it into rubbish, and builds as goodly a fabric of his own in its place. Happily for the present age, the castle-builders

builders employ themselves more in romance than in philosophy; that is undoubtedly their province, and in those regions the offspring of fancy is legitimate, but in philosophy it is all spurious.

Thoughts on Self-preservation, with regard to Suicide.

THE law of self-preservation is one of the principal laws of nature, it is to other laws what existence is to other qualities; existence ceasing, all other qualities cease; the law of self-preservation being infringed, the foundation of other laws is shaken. To destroy one's self, in any manner whatever, is to be guilty of suicide. We must exist as long as possible for ourselves, for our friends, for our parents, for society, for mankind; all the relations that are honest and agreeable in those respects belong to and suit us.

He who transgresses against the law of self-preservation, treads them under foot, and behaves as if he should say to those about him: 'I renounce being any longer your father, your brother, your husband, your friend, your son, your fellow-citizen, your like.' We have freely contracted some of those relations; therefore it does not depend on us to dissolve them without injustice. It is a compact into which we have been neither forced, nor surprized; therefore as we cannot break it of our own authority, we require the consent of those with whom we have contracted. The conditions of this treaty are become burthensome to us, but nothing hindered our foreseeing them; they

might become so to others and to society; but in this case we would not have been forsaken. Let us grant then, that no one morally on the face of the earth is so useless and destitute, as to depart without taking leave of any but himself. The injustice of such a proceeding will be more or less great; but it will still be an injustice. You must therefore be careful that all your actions tend to the preservation of yourself and of others; this is the voice of nature that calls on us perpetually. Remember there is no choice to be made between existence and virtue.

Reflections on different subjects of Morality: by Stanislaus, King of Poland, Duke of Lorrain and Bar.

These reflections are many of them valuable for their solidity and good sense; they are all so, from the goodness of heart which seems to have given rise to them. They are not always the reflections of a profound observer, but in every particular the sentiments of a good man. The same may be said of the piece immediately following, by the same hand.

WHEN truth offends no one, it ought to pass out of the mouth as naturally as the air we breathe.

If with the pains we endure here below we were immortal, we should be the most miserable of all beings. It is sweet and pleasing to hope that we shall not live always.

It seems that all we do is but a rough draught, and that always something remains to be done to make the work complete.

Power

Power is not always proportionate to the will. One should be consulted before the other ; but the generality of men begin by willing, and act afterwards as they can.

Affectation discovers sooner what one is, than it makes known what one would fain appear to be.

Laziness is a premature death. To be in no action is not to live.

Great wants proceed from great wealth, and make riches almost equal to poverty.

We feel death but once ; he who fears death, dies every time he thinks of it.

A miser of sixty years old refuses himself necessities, that he might not want them when he is a hundred. Almost all of us make ourselves unhappy by too much forecast.

Nature does not accustom us to suffer from our infancy, but in order to teach us to suffer.

It is happy for human nature that there are desires which cannot be satisfied. Otherwise the most sorry man would make himself master of the world.

He that keeps his promise only to his own advantage, is scarce more bound than if he had promised nothing. Every promise of interest vanishes as soon as the interest ceases.

I esteem greatly the ignorance of a man who believes and confesses his knowledge to be confined to what he knows.

None are rash, when they are not seen by any body.

Man is only weak by the disproportion there is between what he can and what he is willing to do. The only way he has to increase

his strength, is to retrench many of his desires.

Interested benefits are so common, that we need not be astonished if ingratitude is not so rare.

We only hate the wicked thro' interest. If they did us no injury, we should look upon them with indifference.

The people most attached to life are almost always those who know least how to enjoy it.

The misfortune of the most learned is not to know, that they are ignorant of what they cannot know.

In the clashing of opinions, the most simple wants only, for uniting minds, to be proposed last.

Too much devotion leads to fanaticism ; too much philosophy to irreligion.

The care we take not to suffer, causes more torment than we should find in supporting what we suffer.

We meet with great difficulty in conquering pride by resisting it : how potent then must it be, when flattered !

True merit deserves to be honoured, as it honours itself.

As we cannot hinder young people from being inconsiderate, we should remember that they have but a short time to be so.

The generality of misers are very good people ; they do not cease to amass wealth for others that wish their death.

Life is enjoyed only by bits and scraps : every instant terminates its extent : when it exists, the past is no more, and the instant that follows is not yet. In this manner, we die without ever having been able to enjoy one instant.

We live too little for the long time we are to remain dead.

After death there remains no regret for life. The most melancholy of deaths is that of youths, which is for a long time regretted.

The hypocrite who would fain imitate virtue, can only copy it in water colours.

It is having in some measure a sort of wit, to know how to use the wit of others.

The indolence of the generality of the great borders somewhat upon a lethargic state.

I doubt whether a wise and sensible man would become young again on the same conditions he was once so.

The prejudices of youth pass away with it. Those of old age last only because there is no other age to be hoped for.

The reason why some people speak so much is, that they speak only by memory.

We must not be astonished that we have so strong an inclination to idleness: it is the natural state of man, labour being a punishment to him.

The poor, condemned to the sweat of their brow and to fatigue, upbraid nature with the sloth of the rich; and the rich, tormented by passions, or devoured by disgust and irksomeness, envy the innocent pleasure of the poor. None here below find themselves happy but in the place of others.

True religion has never perhaps suffered so much from the violence of its persecutors, as from the folly and insincerity of those who represent it as a frightful phantom by its rigours.

It is rare that love is not foolish

in a foolish mind; it may be wise in a well-formed heart.

The first sighs of foolish love are the last of wisdom.

How many prodigals are there, who, by dying, pay only nature what they owe her!

We mount to fortune by several steps; but require only one step to come down from fortune.

What a vacuity must there be in a mind, which designs to be filled with evidence!

There are authors that take so much pains with, and polish so much their writings, that all they give to the public are nothing but mere dust and filings.

The first faults alarm innocence; those that follow cease to fright her. Happy that innocence which has not learned to fear, or has held to her first fears.

I know no real worth but that tranquil firmness which seeks dangers by duty, and braves them without rashness.

I pity less an ignorant person who knows nothing, than one who knows but indifferently what he has learned. It is much better to know thoroughly, than to know a great deal.

The man of understanding reasons only according to what he has learned; but the man of genius according to himself.

It does not suit all persons to be modest: none but great men ought to be so.

The merit of great men is not understood but by those who are formed to be such themselves; genius speaks only to genius.

Great men are in vain criticized, their illustrious qualities are sufficient to procure them revenge.

Great

Great speakers resemble those musicians, who, in their airs, prefer noise to harmony.

We may recover out of the darkness of ignorance, but never out of that of presumption.

We have known how to make the elements obsequious to our ingenuity, but we know not how to master our passions.

True valour braves danger without neglecting resources.

Two sorts of men do not reflect, the terrified and the rash man.

The true courage of the hero is to forget the rank he has attained by his courage.

Riches would be little esteemed, if they did not furnish vanity with the pleasure of having what others have not.

Though justice is not sold, it costs a great deal, and one must be very rich to obtain it.

We are in the wrong to confound tastes with passions. Tastes are less quick, and pass away; passions are more impetuous and durable.

Let us seek after our enemies in those with whom we live; others, with whom we have no acquaintance, do not think of doing us harm.

To hurt with more certainty, we impute to those we do not love, either an excess of virtue, or faults that come nearest to the virtues that constitute their merit.

To speak evil of a woman's rivals is a sure way of praising her. How many men are women in this respect!

Jealousy would fain pass for an excess of love; but it terrifies in saying that it loves.

To be in a passion is to punish one's self for the faults and imperfections of another.

Death is always an assured asylum against the labours and troubles of this world. A pilot, sure of entering the port, is in no dread of tempests.

I would be glad to know why the oddest tastes are always attended with the quickest sensations.

The word of God proves the truth of religion; the corruption of man its necessity; government its advantages.

Nothing but religion is capable of changing pains into pleasures.

If we had a fore-feeling of the trouble of correcting ourselves, we should have none in keeping ourselves free from faults.

In order to be applauded for what we do, we must not too much applaud ourselves.

Long ailments wear out pain; and long hopes, joy.

Those that ought to be secure from calumny, are generally those that avoid it least.

We wish no evil to those we despise, but to those who have a right to despise us.

We ought to be more offended at extravagant praise, than injuries.

How can we love a life that leads constantly to death, and by ways always beset with thorns?

Good-humour is the health of the soul, sadness its poison.

Reason shews us our duty; he who can make us love our duty, is more powerful than reason itself.

An implacable hatred is a greater burthen than we usually think it is.

I believe, indeed, that it is more laudable to suffer great misfortunes, than to do great things.

Praises are satire when insincere.

Almost always the most indigent are the most generous.

The ties of friendship are at present so slight, that they break of themselves: they only draw hearts near each other, but do not unite them.

A hard and polished piece of marble reflects the objects that are presented before it. The same may be said of most men. The troubles of another skim over the surface of their soul, but go no farther.

A man greater than his misfortunes, shews that he was not deserving of them.

The courage which emulation inspires for an enterprize, soon finds the means of succeeding.

To cease hearing a babbler is the surest way to make him hold his tongue.

The desire of pleasing is not laudable, but so far as we endeavour at the same time to make ourselves esteemed.

To live in quiet, we should undertake nothing difficult; but presumption makes all things to be thought easy.

The instability of our tastes is the occasion of the irregularity of our lives.

No other princes, commonly, but those who are deserving of immortality, love to encourage the talents that give a right to it.

Religion has nothing more to fear, than not being sufficiently understood.

Must one cease to be virtuous to escape being exposed to the darts of envy? What a calamity would it be, if the sun ceased shining that weak eyes might not be offended!

The older love grows, the weaker it is. Friendship is stronger in becoming old.

Nature cries aloud to the most

powerful as well as to the most abject of men, that they are all members of the same body.

If we perceive at present little genius, it is because the arts have few inventors in an age where there are so many models.

The most infallible mark of ignorance is superstition.

Which of us would take notice of time, if it did not pass away? But great is our mishap not to think of it till the moment it flies away and escapes us!

Science, when well digested, is nothing but good sense and reason.

There are few persons of greater worth than their reputation; but how many are there whose worth is far short of their reputation!

However great a happiness is, there is one still greater; which is that of being esteemed worthy of the happiness that is enjoyed.

We ought to reckon time by our good actions, and place the rest to the account of our not having lived.

Though hope often deceives us, we have still the same confidence, and our life passes away in hoping.

All nature acts for growing, and all growth for its destruction.

The virtue that excites envy has at least the advantage of confounding sooner or later the envious.

Modesty is always inseparable from true merit.

The best way for some to console themselves for their ignorance, is to believe useless all that they do not know.

Can princes, born in palaces, be sensible of the misery of those that dwell in cottages?

Patriotism is nothing more than the sentiment of our welfare, and the dread of seeing it disturbed.

Every thing, even piety, is dan-

dangerous in a man without judgment.

Reason has occasion for experience; but experience is useless without reason.

Conscience admonishes us as a friend, before punishing us as a judge.

To believe with certainty, we must begin with doubting.

I would be glad that there was a less distance between the people and the great. The people then not believing the great to be greater than they are, would fear them less; and the great, not imagining the people more insignificant and miserable than they are, would fear them more.

If beauty knew all the advantages of the modesty that heightens its charms, it would not constantly expose it to so many dangers.

Why fly from the unhappy? their state makes us more sensible of the value of the happiness we possess.

To suppose courage in a coward, is to inspire him with courage in effect.

To make the principle of our conduct consist in the necessity of duty, is to make it very hard and painful, and to expose ourselves constantly to the desire of breaking through it.

How many people make every thing their business, because they know not how to occupy themselves in any thing!

Experience, acquired by faults, is a very costly master.

We are fond of conversing with those we love, why therefore cannot man, who loves himself so well, remain a moment with himself?

Is it not astonishing that the

love of repose keeps us in continual agitation?

The advice given to princes is usually of service to those only who give it.

Men and women, in marrying, make a vow of loving one another. Would it not be better for their happiness if they made a vow of pleasing each other?

As soon as in conversation we have perceived the result of the mind of those with whom we speak, we should stop there: all that is said further, being no longer comprehended, might pass for ridiculous.

What makes so many persons go astray in their arguments is, that they would fain think beyond the extent of their intellects.

The desire of doing well is debased by the desire of appearing to have done well.

It is rare that coxcombs have not at first the ascendant in every assembly. It is the mud that rises on the surface of the water, till, the agitation ceasing, it precipitates of itself.

There is no where so much occasion for good-humour as in courts, and yet there we find least of it.

It is hardly possible to suspect another, without having in one's self the seeds of the baseness the party is accused of.

Esteem has more engaging charms than friendship, and even love. It captivates hearts better and never makes ingrates.

Vanity is less insupportable than affected modesty.

I esteem an honest man, who is sensible in regard to glory; I esteem him no longer when he is captivated with vanity.

There are few friends but admit of advice, but scarce any can abide censure.

By shewing too much dread of being deceived, we often discover the manner whereby we may be deceived.

We usually take a confident to have an approver.

The earnest desire of succeeding is almost always a prognostic of success.

Whoever places importance in little things, is subject to treat slightly the most essential.

Many misers prefer, to the shame of appearing such, the punishment of being profuse.

A covetous person is seldom cured of the passion for gaming. Besides the hopes of gain, he finds in it the advantage of hiding his avarice under an air of disinterestedness.

We are usually mistaken in esteeming men too much ; rarely in esteeming them too little.

Dialogue between a King and his Favourite, on the apparent happiness of human conditions : by Stanislaus, King of Poland, Duke of Lorraine and Bar.

King. **F**OR some time past I perceived in you a gloominess which does not suit your happy situation. I have raised you to the highest degree of grandeur you could attain to ; I have heaped the gifts of fortune on you, and you enjoy a state of life which cannot fail of being very agreeable, as by it you are subject to no duty which can be a trouble to you.

Favourite. What you do me the honour to tell me is very true. All

my acquaintance think the same ; every one believes me happy ; and nothing seems wanting to me, but to be persuaded of it myself. The degree of elevation I have arrived at, has been constantly the object of my desires : but it is now almost insupportable to me. Some see nothing but haughtiness and disdain in my looks ; others perceive only in my fortune a lucky singularity of your favour. All, not excepting my old friends, affect for me an indifference, which is more tormenting to me than jealousy is to themselves, which consumes them, and which they are afraid to discover. The immense stores of wealth you have showered down upon me, have not been hitherto able to satiate my avidity, and I regret laying them out on superfluities, which my station creates as wants to me ; I find, indeed, that nothing can make amends for the loss sustained by vain ostentation, and that a man is always punished for his vanity. You have not imposed any painful duty on me ; but the public infer from thence that I am good for nothing, and incapable of rendering you any service. Those who want some favour, flatter me ; and those who require none, consider me as a bold intruder, that pretends to usurp your power, and to govern you. The faults which it is fancied you commit, are imputed to me ; I am the sole object of all discontent ; in not sparing me, you are thought to undergo correction. In short, by studying to secure the permanency of your favour, I am commonly forced to lay a restraint upon myself, intirely attentive to please you, and always reduced to the necessity

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sity of being quite regardless of others.

This is my condition. Judge if you have succeeded in making me perfectly happy. You will also allow, that, to be happy, I should be certain of being so constantly; and who will warrant me that the enemies my credit have brought upon me, may not have themselves hereafter enough to deprive me of it, and that you yourself may think you have done a just and laudable action by sacrificing me to their animosity? To prevent this disgrace, and to deliver you at the same time from the uneasiness my persecutors give you, I believe sometimes I cannot shew you a greater mark of gratitude, than by withdrawing from your court; and sometimes also, persuaded that my retiring would pass for the most signal ingratitude, I cannot resolve upon deserting you. These two opposite sentiments distract me, and this is the cause of the gloom you have noticed in me. My reason fluctuates between two extremities equally rational, the love that attaches me to your person, and the obstacles which do not permit me to love you in tranquillity.

King. In the picture you have drawn for me of your sentiments, I see a pretty faithful image of what I experience myself; though your condition and mine do not place us upon an equality, we yet resemble each other. I am a man, and consequently subject to all the passions common to human nature. You are ambitious, and so am I; but my ambition, wound up to the highest pitch, has not such engaging charms for me as yours may have for you. To enjoy with

more satisfaction the honours which are due to me, I would fain persuade myself that they are rendered to my merit, rather than to my high rank, and that these points of homage are more addressed to my person than to my dignity. It is true, that in order to raise myself even above the throne which I occupy, I have always endeavoured to raise for myself a reputation, which, by its solidity rather than splendor, might be capable of satisfying the whole extent of my ambition; but, in despite of all my cares, I am still daily exposed to the censure of the public, who, having continually their eyes fixed on me, judge of my actions according to their caprice. How many are there who believe they cannot shew themselves good citizens, but by censuring the government under which they live? nor good politicians, but by straining hard to fathom the mysteries of cabinets? And now what has been the success of my ambition? More satisfactory than that of private persons, it is notwithstanding circumscribed by bounds as well as theirs: nay, every thing in kings betrays all the symptoms of the weakness of human nature.

As to riches, their abundance makes them less precious to me than they are to private persons; safety spoils their relish: besides, having no trouble in acquiring them, I am not attached to them so as that they may contribute to my happiness. I could wish that all my riches consisted only in the pleasure of seeing none poor throughout my kingdom.

In respect to the duties which I have dispensed you from, that
you

you might enjoy in greater tranquillity all the sweets of life, I could also wish those incumbent on me were in the same condition; but herein I cannot have the same advantage as you.

The principal of my duties is employing usefully all the moments of my life; I speak of those which I ought to consecrate to the good of the state. It often happens that the loss of one of those moments cannot be repaired in the whole course of an age. My ruling passion, and that which contributes most to my happiness, is to make, if possible, all my subjects happy; but it is a torment to me to endeavour to content the tastes, the caprices, and the too often unreasonable pretensions of those who aspire to my favours. Experience has sufficiently convinced me how difficult it is, not to say impossible, to satisfy all those who believe they ought to partake of them. In distributing them, I give the preference to the deserving; but where is the person that does not believe but he deserves them? It is sufficient that he has so good an opinion of himself as to conceive discontent at the good I have done, and he believes this good misplaced. Thus what does not satisfy one man becomes an injury to many, and hence may be derived that coldness in serving me; every function becomes then burthensome and painful; zeal is only biased by interest; and each person, reputing me the author of his troubles, cannot imagine the desire I have for satisfying him, if his desires were compatible with the public good. Can I then depend upon the love of all my subjects?

Can I even flatter myself with the attachment of those on whom I heaped many favours? They enjoy among themselves the sweets of a society, the charms of which are enhanced by harmony and friendship; and what friends can I have but those which interest procures for me?

What shall I say of the other duties annexed to my crown? In the exercise of justice, it is as dangerous for me to dissemble, as it is disagreeable to punish; yet my clemency passes often for weakness, and my fixed resolution for cruelty. In military affairs, I forget nothing for maintaining the glory and interest of the nation; but if I am for making and retaining conquests, I am deemed ambitious and an usurper; if I seek for peace, I am thought incapable of using my power: in civil affairs, howsoever exact the measures I have taken may be, they will be said to be ill concerted, if not attended with success; and if, in the exercise of my legislative capacity, I procure the abrogating of ancient laws formerly useful, at present inconvenient, and in their room have new ones enacted, this change will be considered as a stretch of prerogative, or tendency to despotism. In the finances, I may be accused of maladministration, and yet I am sensible of the great hardships my people suffer by contributing to the necessities of the state. It is with regret that I impose taxes on them; I fancy that I wrest violently from myself what I ask of them; and I feel, with the most acute sensibility, what a melancholy thing it is to see one's self the father of a family in distress.

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I am not unacquainted with the artful turns and cunning that have been introduced into politics, but herein I have been entirely influenced by good faith, under the guidance of truth and justice. If my sincerity, always the same, is not successful, I am blamed for having made use of it; and what none can help deeming a virtue, is imputed to me as a crime. Add to this, that what some detested in my enemy, notwithstanding his successes, they wish I had put in practice myself, even at the hazard of reaping no advantage from it. Now think, abiding by my maxims, how much it must have cost me on certain occasions, when, by reasons of state, I have seen myself obliged to retract my word!

I have laid open to you the inmost recesses of my heart, and you see the candour of my intentions; but these candid intentions have been far from turning always to good account for me. Must it not be a vexation when justice is not done them, and an ill construction is put upon my best manner of conducting myself for the good of my people? Yet this consolation is left, that I have nothing to reproach myself with.

The same cannot be said in regard to what I am going to tell you. By being a king I have not ceased to be a man, and I acknowledge in myself many faults. Sometimes my power and self-love might have made me deviate from the paths of justice and reason; vain-glory might have made me undertake wars without being sufficiently sensible of their necessity, and without foreseeing that,

for some doubtful advantages gained over my enemies, I exposed my people to the danger of being ruined by inevitable expences. I might have, to ill purposes, squandered away the public treasure, or at least neglected to manage it with an exact œconomy. In council, instead of interrogating truth, and encouraging its answers, I might, bigoted to my own notions, have inflexibly maintained them. In society, I might often, through complaisance, have borne with faults worthy of reprehension; and, through the habit of receiving praises, I might have been too sensibly affected by them. It might also happen that I have been too inattentive to the conduct of my ministers; that I have often suffered them to abuse my authority; that, like them, I have been so weak as to think that to grow old in an employ was to acquire experience in it; and that, lastly, the pleasure of making persons happy costing me nothing, I have often granted to importunity what I should have only conferred on merit.

Hence it is plain that, on the throne itself, where one is constantly exposed to so many occasions of being deficient in duty, no perfect happiness can be tasted. When I do good, none have a due sense of it; and, when I do evil, it is never pardoned in me.

Favourite. I have, Sir, the deepest sense of the confidence you have just now placed in me. I confess that, among those that surround you, several will always find some fault with your virtues, and several will be bold enough to applaud even your faults. It is the business

business of your prudence to discern both, and of your wisdom to despise all equally.

King. I would gladly follow this last advice, if, in placing myself above all censure, I could at the same time suppress the voice of my conscience and reason. The whole of my condition charms me, the detail of it fills me with horror. Thus your state and mine bear a resemblance to one another, notwithstanding their infinite distance. All men are made to fancy themselves free, though in a real bondage, because none in any station of life can call themselves perfectly happy. To be able, however, in some measure, to mitigate my lot; I have only one thing to wish for, which is, that as my subjects form with me the same body politic, there may be between us a kind of democratical and inseparable union, in order to their having as much confidence in my government as I have always had in their zeal and fidelity.

On Friendship and Pity.

WHEN we reflect on the manner in which mankind generally confer their favours, we shall find that they who seem to want them least, are the very persons who most liberally share them. There is something so attractive in riches; that the large heap generally collects from the smaller; and the poor find as much pleasure in increasing the enormous mass, as the miser who owns it sees happiness in its increase. Nor is there in this any thing repugnant to the laws of true morality. Seneca himself allows, that in conferring

benefits, the present should always be suited to the dignity of the receiver. Thus the rich receive large presents, and are thanked for accepting them. Men of middling stations are obliged to be content with presents something less; while the beggar, who may be truly said to want indeed, is well paid if a farthing rewards his warmest solicitations.

Every man who has seen the world must know, that to have much, or to seem to have it, is the only way to have more. Thus, when a man has no occasion to borrow, he finds numbers willing to lend him. A certain young fellow at George's, whenever he had occasion to ask his friend for a guinea, used to prelude his request as if he wanted two hundred, and talking so familiarly of large sums, that none could ever think he wanted a small one. The same gentleman, whenever he wanted credit for a new suit from his taylor, always made the proposal in laced cloaths; for he found by experience, that if he appeared shabby on these occasions, Mr. Lynch had taken an oath against trusting, or what was every bit as bad, his foreman was out of the way, and would not be at home these two days.

Pity and Friendship are passions incompatible with each other, and it is impossible that both can reside in any breast for the smallest space without impairing each other. Friendship is made up of esteem and pleasure; Pity is composed of sorrow and contempt; the mind may for some time fluctuate between them, but it can never entertain both together.

Yet let it not be thought that I would

would exclude Pity from the human mind. There is scarce any who are not in some degree possessed of this pleasing softness; but it is at best but a short-lived passion, and seldom affords distress more than transitory assistance: with some it scarce lasts from the first impulse till the hand can be put into the pocket; with others it may continue for twice that space; and on some of extraordinary sensibility, I have seen it operate for half an hour. In great distress we sometimes, it is true, feel the influence of tenderness strongly; when the same distress solicits a second time, we then feel with diminished sensibility, but like the repetition of an echo, every new impulse becomes weaker, till at last our sensations lose every mixture of sorrow, and degenerate into downright contempt.

Jack Spindle and I were old acquaintance; but he is gone. Jack was bred in a compting house, and his father dying just as he was out of his time, left him an handsome fortune, and many friends to advise him. The restraint in which he had been brought up, had thrown a gloom upon his temper, which some regarded as an habitual prudence, and from such considerations he had every day repeated offers of friendship. Those who had money were ready to offer him their assistance that way; and they who had daughters, frequently, in the warmth of affection, advised him to marry. Jack, however, was in good circumstances; he wanted neither money, friends, nor a wife, and therefore modestly declined their proposals.

Some errors in the management

of his affairs, and several losses in trade, soon brought Jack to a different way of thinking; and he at last thought it his best way to let his friends know that their offers were at length acceptable. His first address was therefore to a scrivener, who had formerly made him frequent offers of money and friendship.

Jack, therefore, thought he might use his old friend without any ceremony, and as a man confident of not being refused, requested the use of an hundred guineas for a few days, as he just then had an occasion for money. ‘And pray, Mr. Spindle,’ replied the scrivener, ‘do you want all this money?’ ‘Want it, Sir!’ says the other, ‘If I did not want it, I should not have asked it.’ ‘I am sorry for that,’ says the friend: ‘for those who want money when they come to borrow, will want money when they should come to pay. To say the truth, Mr. Spindle, money is money now-a-days: I believe it is all sunk in the bottom of the sea, for my part; and he that has got a little is a fool if he does not keep what he has got.’

Not quite disconcerted by this refusal, our adventurer was resolved to apply to another whom he knew to be the very best friend he had in the world. The gentleman whom he now addressed, received his proposal with all the affability that could be expected from generous friendship. ‘Let me see, you want an hundred guineas; and pray, dear Jack, would not fifty answer?’ ‘If you have but fifty to spare, Sir, I must be contented.’ ‘Fifty to spare!’

‘ spare! I do not say that; for I believe I have but twenty about me.’ ‘ Then I must borrow the other thirty from some other friend.’ ‘ And pray,’ replied the friend, ‘ would it not be the best way to borrow the whole money from that other friend, and then one note would serve for all, you know. Lord, Mr. Spindle, make no ceremony with me at any time: you know I am your friend, and when you chuse a bit of dinner or so—— You, Tom, see the gentleman down. You won’t forget to dine with us now-and-then. Your very humble servant.’

Distressed, but not discouraged at this treatment, he was at last resolved to find that assistance from love which he could not have from friendship. Miss Jenny Dismal had a fortune in her own hands, and she had already made all the advances that her sex’s modesty would permit. He made his proposal therefore with confidence, but soon perceived no bankrupt ever found the fair one kind. Miss Jenny and Master Billy Galloon were lately fallen deeply in love with each other, and the whole neighbourhood thought it would soon be a match.

Every day now began to strip Jack of his former finery; his cloaths flew piece by piece to the pawn-broker’s; and he seemed at length equipped in the genuine mourning of antiquity. But still he thought himself secure from starving, the numberless invitations he had received to dine, even after his losses, were yet unanswered; he was therefore now resolved to accept of a dinner, be-

cause he wanted one; and in this manner he actually lived among his friends a whole week without being openly affronted. The last place I saw poor Jack at was the Rev. Dr. Gosling’s: he had, as he fancied, just nicked the time, for he came in as the cloth was laying. He took a chair without being desired, and talked for some time without being attended to. He assured the company that nothing procured so good an appetite as a walk to White Conduit-house, where he had been that morning. He looked at the table cloth, and praised the figure of the damask; talked of a feast where he had been the day before, but that the venison was over done. All this, however, procured the poor creature no invitation, and he was not yet sufficiently hardened to stay without being asked; wherefore, finding the gentleman of the house insensible to all his fetches, he thought proper, at last, to retire, and mend his appetite by a walk in the Park.

You then, O ye beggars of my acquaintance, whether in rags or lace; whether in Kent-street or the Mall; whether at the Smyrna or St. Giles’s; might I advise as a friend, never seem in want of the favour which you solicit: apply to every passion, but Pity, for redress. You may find relief from vanity, from self-interest, or even from avarice, but seldom from compassion. The very eloquence of a poor man is disgusting. If then you would ward off the gripe of Poverty, pretend to be a stranger to her, and she will at least use you with ceremony. Hear not my advice, but that of Offellus. If you

you be caught dining upon a half-penny porringer of pease-soup and potatoes, praise the wholesomeness of your frugal repast. You may observe that Dr. Cheyne has prescribed pease-broth for the gravel; hint that you are not one of those who are always making a god of their belly. If you are obliged to wear a flimsy stuff in the middle of winter, be the first to remark that stuffs are much worn at Paris. If there be found some irreparable defects in any part of your equipage, which cannot be concealed by all the arts of sitting cross-legged, coaxing, or darning, say, that neither you nor Sampson Gideon were ever very fond of drefs. Of if you be a philosopher, hint that Plato or Seneca are the taylors you chuse to employ; assure the company that men ought to be content with a bare covering, since what now is so much the pride of some, was formerly our shame. Horace will give you a Latin sentence fit for the occasion;

———*Toga defendere frigus
Quamvis crassa queat.*

In short, however caught, do not give up, but ascribe to the frugality of your disposition what others might be apt to attribute to the narrowness of your circumstances, and appear rather to be a miser than a beggar. To be poor, and to seem poor, is a certain method never to rise. Pride in the great is hateful, in the wise it is ridiculous; beggarly pride is the only sort of vanity I can excuse.

Traveller, N^o V.

Reflections on the influence of Language on Opinions, and of Opinions on Language. Extracted from a dissertation on that subject, by M. Michaelis, president of the Royal Society of Gottingen.

IT is easy to be perceived that in every country the populace have had the principal influence in the formation of languages; because the ideas entertained in this respect by the majority of a people, will always take the lead, and influence the rest. Hence it will follow, that in proportion as the people of any nation grow learned and polite, their language will be improved and embellished. Of this Mr. Michaelis gives us several instances. Thus, according to our author, Θεός, the Greek term for the divinity, takes its rise from a word which signifies *to run*; because the stars were worshipped as deities by the idolatrous people who first formed that language. Thus also the Latin term for the Deity hath generally a plural sense, on account of the prevailing notions of polytheism among the ancient Romans. Nay, it is certain that neither the Greeks nor the Latins had any word expressive of that idea which we form of one supreme, perfect, independent Being, who created the universe. Again, the Hebrew term generally used by the Jews to express the *leprosy*, literally signifies *to be scourged with a rod*. Now, in the eastern countries this disease was peculiarly looked upon as an immediate punishment inflicted by God; and hence that name was given to it. The Greeks made use of the same word to signify the

the *soul*, as they used for a butterfly; evidently because a butterfly is only a caterpillar that changes its form without dying, and bears therein a similitude to the soul, which continues to exist in its new state after the dissolution of the body. It was for this reason that the Greeks first represented the soul hieroglyphically under the form of a butterfly, and afterwards proceeded to give it the very name of that insect.

Under the second head, our author instances, as an useful effect of this intimate connection between languages and opinions, the uncommon energy of some etymologies from which the nature of the objects spoken of is instantaneously and strikingly perceived. Thus, for example, Δόξα, the Greek term for *glory and honour*, signifies literally *opinion*, and is expressive, without equivocation, of the good opinion entertained of us by others. It was very far, therefore, from ridiculous pedantry in the ancients to apply themselves with such great assiduity to the purity and perfection of their language; an object equally worthy the attention and application of the moderns; as by such means they may do infinite service to the cause of literature, not only with regard to the precision of language, but to the perpetuating of the discoveries in the sciences. Thus it will be impossible, for instance, so long as the German language subsists, for posterity to forget the use of the *Quinquina*; as in that tongue it is called *Fiebrinde*, or the *Fever-bark*. Another great advantage which is to be deduced from etymological precision is, that it serves

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to preserve the original notions of things which time hath diversified. Thus the definitions usually given of *marriage* are imperfect, in that they do not convey a precise distinction between the state of matrimony and concubinage. But if we consult the Greek, we shall find the word Νόμος used indiscriminately both for *marriage* and the *law*; and hence we may discover, that to be married to any one originally signified to be united according to law. A farther instance of the advantageous influence of language on opinions, our author observes to be the effect which the names of things frequently have, to inspire a love or hatred toward them as they are represented thereby to be beneficial or hurtful. Thus, if, instead of calling the artificial method of communicating the small-pox by the name of *inoculation*, it had been called, for example, the *Turkish small-pox*, it would in all probability have met with much greater opposition than it hath done: whereas, on the other hand, if this salutary practice had been softened by the appellation of the *preservative of beauty*, it is equally probable that the fair sex at least would all declare themselves openly in its favour, notwithstanding the reflections of the morose and gloomy moralists, who decry it.

Languages have an advantageous influence on opinions, in their variety of terms to express the several objects of our knowledge. The more copious any language is, the more easily will it take the impressions of science. How useful, for instance, would it not be, if all plants and vegetables had French names in France, German

man names in Germany, and that the botanists should call them by the same appellation as the people? The oriental languages were, in this respect, greatly superior to ours. But our manner of teaching all the sciences in Latin prevents the modern languages from acquiring such a degree of perfection: the several professors of natural philosophy in the universities of Europe, however, would do well to pay so much respect to their own country, as to give lectures in their vernacular tongue. It is certain, that the copiousness of a language may serve to prevent an infinitude of popular errors, which the vulgar fall into from the barrenness of their native tongues.

A Discourse addressed to the Welchés (i. e. French) by Anthony Vadee, brother to William.

From the Tales of William Vadee, lately published by M. de Voltaire.

O WELCHES! my countrymen! if you surpass the ancient Greeks and Romans, let it not however be said of you, that, like testy and wayward babes, you bite the nipples of the nurses that have fed you with instruction: abstain from insulting the masters that taught you; be modest in your triumphs; consider for a moment what you really are, and from whence you derive your origin.

You had the honour, it is true, to be conquered and enslaved by Julius Cæsar, who condemned your whole parliament of Vannes to the

gallows, sold the rest of the inhabitants like cattle, cut off the hands of the people of Quercy, and afterwards governed you with great clemency. You remained about five hundred years subject to the laws of the Roman empire. Your Druids, who treated you like slaves and beasts, and burned you piously in oser cages, lost a considerable part of their credit and influence when you became the slaves of the Romans. You must, however, acknowledge that you have always, more or less, borne certain characters of barbarity.

In the fifth century, you were made slaves by the Vandals, whom you call by the pompous and high-sounding name of Burgundians, a very cleanly sort of people, who, according to the report of Sidonius Apollinaris, anointed their hair with strong butter. These elegant victors made themselves masters of all that territory that lies between the city of Vienne, in Dauphiny, and the source of the Seine; and there subsists still some remains, that discover the genius and manners of those glorious times, since it is well known that to this very day the monks and canons have vassals and fiefs in that country. This honourable prerogative of humanity is still a standing testimony of your wisdom.

One part of your country, which in your barbarous jargon you called Oc, was invaded by the Visigoths, and another, that you named Oui, was seized by a Sicambrian called Hildovic, or Clovis, whose forefathers had been exposed at Triers to the fury of wild beasts by the emperor Constantine. This Sicambrian, at the
P head

head of an handful of Franks who issued forth from the marshy borders of the Rhine, the Maine, and the Maife, reduced you anew into a state of servitude.

The glorious expeditions of this illustrious hero consisted in assassinating, in the most perfidious manner, three little kings who were his relations and friends. It was then that your country acquired the melodious name of Frankreik, since changed for that of France, and you looked upon yourselves as the first nation in the universe, because you carried the golden standard of St. Denis.

A band of northern pirates landed upon your coasts some time after to lay you under contribution, and took from you the province, since called Normandy. You were then divided and parcelled out into little nations under different sovereigns, of which every one had its own laws and its own peculiar jargon.

The half of your country belonged, soon after this, to the inhabitants of the island of Britain; twelve provinces were actually in their hands, when, as yet, you had neither Laon, nor Marseilles, nor Dauphiny, nor Provence, nor Languedoc.

Notwithstanding the miseries of this ignominious condition, notwithstanding this series of defeats and affronts, your compilers, whom you dignify with the title of historians, call you often the first people in the universe. This epithet is neither obliging nor polite with respect to other nations. Add a little modesty to your shining qualities, and temper your pretensions with a small portion

of humility, and then the rest of Europe will do you justice, and pronounce you supportable.

Thank your stars that the factions of the Red Rose and White Rose delivered you out of the hands of the English; and particularly, that the civil wars in Germany hindered Charles the fifth from swallowing up your country, and making you a province of the empire.

You had a transitory moment of reputation and lustre under the reign of Lewis the fourteenth; but do not let that tempt you to imagine that you are superior to the ancient Greeks and Romans.

Remember, that during the space of six hundred years, scarcely any mortal was found among you (except a few of your new druids) who could either read or write. Your extreme, and almost unparalleled ignorance, rendered you an easy prey to the flamen, or high-priest of Rome, and his ghostly council, who governed you like children, and from time to time whipped you into obedience with the rod of superstition and tyranny. Your contracts of marriage (when you made any) were penned in barbarous Latin by the clergy, so that you knew not the nature or extent of your obligations; and as soon as your wedding was blessed with offspring, a tonsured pedant came from Rome, and proved to you, by the strength of papal logic, that your wives were not your wives, but your cousins, in the seventh degree; that your marriage was a sacrilege; that your children were bastards, and that you yourselves would be eternally damned if you did

did not give, without hesitation or delay, the half of your substance to the apostolic see.

Your kings were not much better treated than yourselves. Nine of them, if I am not mistaken, were excommunicated by the servant of the servants of God with the fisherman's ring. This excommunication implied, and was constantly attended with confiscation of goods, chattels, and tenements, so that your kings forfeited thereby all right to their crown, which the Roman fisherman disposed of to such of his friends as he liked best.

You will perhaps alledge, my dear Welches, that the people of England, and the German emperors, were as insolently treated by the papal flamen as you have been; but this does not justify you: besides, if the British nation was for a certain time tame, and stupid enough to submit to the yoke of the Roman druid, you must at least acknowledge that it has had spirit enough to break it asunder, and to avenge itself of the ghostly tyrant. Do your best to imitate this laudable example.

You had formerly a king [Francis I.] who though unsuccessful in all his expeditions, and disappointed in almost all his designs, was yet so lucky as to succeed in his laudable endeavours to have you taught to read and write. He also brought learned men from Italy, who taught you Greek; and artists who instructed you in the arts of sculpture and painting. Nevertheless an hundred years passed before you had a good painter or a good sculptor: and as to those who learned the Greek and He-

brew languages, you had them almost all burnt alive, because you suspected them of reading, in the original, certain ancient Jewish books, the perusal of which is looked upon, by your druids, as of dangerous consequence.

I am ready to grant, my dear Welches, that your country is the first country in the universe; it is however certain, that you do not possess the largest domain in the smallest of the four parts of the world; that Spain, Germany, Sweden, and Poland, surpass you in extent of territory; and that there are provinces in Russia, of which the kingdom of France would not make a fourth part.

I wish I could say that you were the first kingdom in the universe, with respect to the fertility of your soil. But pray consider the forty leagues of barren heath that lie in the neighbourhood of Bourdeaux; think of that part of the province of Champagne that you have dignified with the appellation of Louisy, of those immense districts where the people live upon chestnuts, and of several provinces where they have no other subsistence than oat-bread. Think of the order that prohibits the exportation of corn, an order founded on your poverty; and perhaps in part on that levity of character which leads you often to sell in a hurry all that you have, when in three months time you will be obliged to buy it back again at a more exorbitant rate, like certain inhabitants of America, who sell their bed in the morning, forgetting that they will want it to lie upon at night.

First people of the universe, do
P 2 you

you forget that you have in your kingdom of Frankreik two millions of inhabitants who wear wooden shoes six months in the year, and during the other six months go barefoot?

Are you the first people in the world for commerce and navigation? Alas! are you the first people in the world for the order that reigns in your budget? I am assured that the public money passës through fifty hands before it arrives at the royal treasury, and that in its passage it is filtrated down to about a fifth of its original mass.

You will alledge, perhaps, in answer to all this, that you succeed wonderfully in bringing to perfection your comic operas. I grant this; but to whom, prithee, is the honour due both of your comic and serious operas? Do not they come from Italy?

You have invented, it is true, some new modes, though at present you adopt (generally speaking) those of England. But, on the other hand, was it not a Genoese who discovered that fourth part of the world, in which your possessions are reduced to two or three islands? Was it not a Portuguese who shewed you the way to the East-Indies, where you have lately lost all your settlements?

You are (as you pretend, and as I am willing to allow) the very first people in the world for the invention of useful arts. But was it not John Gira de Melphi, a Neapolitan, who invented the compass? Was it not Schwartz, a German, that invented gunpowder? And was not the art of printing, of which you make

such an extensive use, the fruit of the invention of another German?

When you read with avidity, the new pamphlets on which your reputation as a learned nation is founded, you sometimes, I suppose, make use of spectacles: You may thank for these Francis Spira, an Italian monk, without whose assistance small print would not have been visible to your antiquated eyes. You make discoveries, or amuse the ladies, with telescopes, for the invention of which you are indebted to Metius, a Dutchman, and Galilei, a native of Florence.

Your barometers and thermometers amuse you frequently; but to whom do you owe this pleasure? To Torricelli, who invented the former, and to Drebellius, who was the inventor of the latter.

Many of your philosophers have explored the true laws of the planetary system; but was it not an inhabitant of Polish Prussia that discovered the sublime secret of the Creator? If the use of logarithms has assisted you in your calculations, you are indebted, for this succour, to the indefatigable labour of Lord Napier and his associates; and it is to Otto Guerick, of Magdeburgh, that you are obliged for the air-pump.

The same Galilei, who has been already mentioned, discovered first the satellites of Jupiter, the spots of the sun, and his rotation on his axis. Huygens, the Dutchman, saw Saturn's ring, and an Italian his satellites, when you saw nothing at all.

It was also the immortal Newton

ton who opened your eyes upon the true nature of light, and unfolded the great laws of motion, that regulate the course of the celestial luminaries, and make heavy bodies tend to the center.

First people of the universe, you have nothing almost that you can call your own; you love to adorn your cabinets with prints; but remember that the Florentine Finiguerra is the inventor of that elegant art which employs the graver to multiply and eternize the sublime strokes of the pencil: you have clocks that measure the current of your ill-spent time, but the invention of these is due to the labours of the great Huygens.

On Decency in Conversation.

MUCH of the happiness of life depends upon a strict observance of the decencies of conversation, for conversation seldom takes place but in those seasons that are set apart for relaxation and entertainment; yet we have no institution among us in which the art of conversation is taught, and the laws of it ascertained. It may perhaps be thought difficult, if not impossible, to establish such an institution, and many doubts may arise about the form and manner of conducting it. Instead of evincing its practicability by reasoning upon it, or endeavouring to prescribe its form or its operations, I shall give the following anecdote, which is curious in itself, and may perhaps have a better effect than the mere gratification of curiosity.

There is a very extensive lordship near Lublin in Poland which has been long in possession of the house of Psomka; the eldest branches of which are called lords of Babine, the name of the estate.

There was at the court of Sigismund Augustus, a gentleman of the family of Psomka, who, in concert with Peter Cassovius, bailiff of Lublin, formed a society which the Polish writers call, 'The Republic of Babine,' and which the Germans denominate 'The Society of Fools.' This society was instituted upon the model of the republic of Poland; it has its king, its chancellor, its counsellors, its archbishops, bishops, judges, and other officers. In this republic Psomka had the title of captain, and Cassovius that of chancellor; when any of the members did or said any thing at their meetings which was unbecoming or ill-timed, they immediately gave him a place of which he was required to perform the duties till another was appointed in his stead; for example, if any one spoke too much, so as to engross the conversation, he was appointed orator of the republic; if he spoke improperly, occasion was taken from his subject to appoint him a suitable employment; if, for instance, he talked about dogs, he was made master of the buck-hounds; if he boasted of his courage, he was made a knight, or perhaps a field marshal; and if he expressed a bigotted zeal for any speculative opinion in religion, he was made an inquisitor. The offenders being thus distinguished for their follies, and not their wisdom, gave occasion to the Germans to call the republic 'The Society

'ciety of Fools,' which, though a satire on the individuals, was by no means so on the institution. It happened that the king of Poland one day asked Psomka if they had chosen a king in their republic? To which he replied, 'God forbid that we should think of electing a king while your majesty lives: your majesty will always be king of Babine as well as Poland.' The king was not displeased with this folly of humour, and enquired farther to what extent their republic reached? 'Over the whole world,' says Psomka, 'for we are told by David, that all men are liars.' This society very soon increased so much that there was scarce any person at court who was not honoured with some post in it, and its chiefs were also in high favour with the king. The view of this society was to teach the young nobility a propriety of behaviour, and the arts of conversation; and it was a fundamental law that no slanderer should be received into it. The regiment of the Calot, which was some years since established in the court of France, is very similar to the republic of Sabine. J. H.

*Unconnected Thoughts on Gardening:
by Mr. Shenstone.*

GARDENING may be divided into three species—kitchen-gardening—parterre-gardening—and landscape or picturesque gardening, which latter is the subject intended in the following pages.—It consists in pleasing the imagination by scenes of grandeur, beauty, or variety. Convenience merely has no share here, any

farther than as it pleases the imagination.

Perhaps the division of the pleasures of imagination, according as they are struck by the great, the various, and the beautiful, may be accurate enough for my present purpose: why each of them affects us with pleasure may be traced in another author.

There seems, however, to be some objects which afford a pleasure not reducible to either of the foregoing heads. A ruin, for instance, may be neither new to us, nor majestic, nor beautiful, yet afford that pleasing melancholy which proceeds from a reflection on decayed magnificence. For this reason an able gardener should avail himself of objects, perhaps not very striking, if they serve to connect ideas that convey reflections of the pleasing kind.

Objects should indeed be less calculated to strike the immediate eye, than the judgment or well-formed imagination, as in painting.

It is no objection to the pleasure of novelty that it makes an ugly object more disagreeable. It is enough that it produces a superiority betwixt things in other respects equal. It seems, on some occasions, to go even further. Are there not broken rocks and rugged grounds to which we can hardly attribute either beauty or grandeur, and yet, when introduced near an extent of lawn, impart a pleasure equal to more shapely scenes? Thus a series of lawn, though ever so beautiful, may satiate and cloy, unless the eye passes to them from wilder scenes; and then they acquire the grace of novelty.

Variety

Variety appears to me to derive good part of its effects from novelty; as the eye, passing from one form or colour to a form or colour of a different kind, finds a degree of novelty in its present object which affords immediate satisfaction.

Variety, however, in some distances, may be carried to such excess as to lose its whole effect. I have observed cielings so crammed with stucco ornaments, that, although of the most different kind, they have produced an uniformity. A sufficient quantity of undecorated space is necessary to exhibit such decorations to advantage.

Ground should be first considered with an eye to its peculiar character. Whether it be the grand, the savage, the sprightly, the melancholy, the horrid, or the beautiful. As one or other of the characters prevail, one may somewhat strengthen its effect by allowing every part some denomination, and then supporting its title by suitable appendages.—For instance, the lover's walks may have assignation seats, with proper mottoes—Urns to faithful lovers—Trophies, garlands, &c. by means of art.

What an advantage must some Italian seats derive from the circumstance of being situate on ground mentioned in the classics? And even in England, wherever a park or garden happens to have been the scene of any event in history, one would surely avail one's self of that circumstance to make it more interesting to the imagination. Mottoes should allude to it; columns, &c. record it; verses moralize upon it; and curiosity receive its share of pleasure.

In designing a house and gar-

dens, it is happy when there is an opportunity of maintaining a subordination of parts; the house so luckily placed as to exhibit a view of the whole design. I have sometimes thought that there was room for it to resemble an epic or dramatic poem. It is rather to be wished than required that the more striking scenes may succeed those which are less so.

Taste depends much upon temper. Some prefer Tibullus to Virgil, and Virgil to Homer.—Hagley to Persfield, and Persfield to the Welch mountains. This occasions the different preferences that are given to situations.—A garden strikes us most where the grand and the pleasing succeed, not intermingle with each other.

I believe, however, the sublime has generally a deeper effect than the merely beautiful.

I use the words landscape and prospect; the former as expressive of home scenes, the latter of distant images. Prospect should take in the blue distant hills; but never so remotely, that they be not distinguishable from clouds. Yet this mere extent is what the vulgar value.

Landscape should contain variety enough to form a picture upon canvas; and this is no bad test, as I think the landscape painter is the gardener's best designer. The eye requires a sort of balance here; but not so as to encroach upon probable nature. A wood or hill may balance a house or obelisk; for exactness would be displeasing. We form our notions from what we have seen, and though could we comprehend the universe, we might perhaps find it uniformly regular; yet the portions that we see of it habituate our fancy to the contrary.

The eye should always look rather down upon water: customary nature makes this requisite. I know nothing more sensibly displeasing than Mr. T—'s flat ground betwixt his terras and his water.

It is not easy to account for the fondness of former times for strait-lined avenues to their houses; strait-lined walks through their woods; and, in short, every kind of strait-line; where the foot is to travel over what the eye has done before: this circumstance is one objection: another, somewhat of the same kind, is the repetition of the same object, tree after tree, for a length of way together; a third is, that this identity is purchased by the loss of that variety which the natural country supplies every where in a greater or less degree. To stand still and survey such avenues may afford some slender satisfaction through the change derived from perspective; but to move on continually and find no change of scene in the least attendant on our change of place, must give actual pain to a person of taste. For such an one to be condemned to pass along the famous vista from * Moscow to Petersburg, or that other from Agra to Labor in India, must be as disagreeable a sentence as to be condemned to labour at the galleys. I conceive some idea of the sensation he must feel, from walking but in a few minutes immured betwixt Lord D——'s high-thorn yew-hedges, which run exactly parallel, at the distance of about ten feet, and are contrived perfectly to exclude all kind of objects whatsoever.

When a building or other object

has been once viewed from its proper point, the foot should never travel to it by the same path which the eye hath travelled over before. Lose the object, and draw nigh obliquely.

The side trees in vistas should be so circumstanced as to afford a probability that they grow by nature.

Ruinated structures appear to derive their power of pleasing, from the irregularity of surface, which is variety; and the latitude they afford the imagination, to conceive an enlargement of their dimensions, or to recollect any events or circumstances appertaining to their pristine grandeur so far as concerns grandeur and solemnity. The breaks in them should be as bold and abrupt as possible.—If mere beauty be aimed at (which however is not their chief excellence) the waving line, with more easy transitions, will become of greater importance.—Events relating to them may be simulated by numberless little artifices; but it is ever to be remembered, that high hills and sudden descents are most suitable to castles; and fertile vales, near wood and water, most imitative of the usual situation for abbeyes and religious houses; large oaks, in particular, are essential to these latter,

Whose branching arms, and reverend height,
Admit a dim religious light.

A cottage is a pleasing object, partly on account of the variety it may introduce on account of the tranquillity that seems to reign there, and perhaps (I am somewhat afraid) on account of the pride of human nature.

* In Montesquieu on Taste.

Longe alterius spectare laborem.

In a scene presented to the eye, objects should never lie so much to the right or left, as to give any uneasiness in the examination; sometimes, however, it may be better to admit valuable objects even with this disadvantage; they should else never be seen beyond a certain angle. The eye must be easy, before it can be pleased.

No mere slope from one side to the other can be agreeable ground: the eye requires a balance—i. e. a degree of uniformity: but this may be otherwise effected, and the rule should be understood with some limitation.

—Each alley has its brother,
And half the platform just reflects the other.

Let us examine what may be said in favour of that regularity which Mr. Pope exposes. Might he not seemingly as well object to the disposition of an human face, because it has an eye or cheek, that is the very picture of its companion? Or does not Providence, who has observed this regularity in the external structure of our bodies, and disregarded it within, seem to consider it as a beauty? The arms, the limbs, and the several parts of them correspond, but it is not the same case with the thorax and the abdomen. I believe one is generally solicitous for a kind of balance in a landscape; and if I am not mistaken, the painters generally furnish one: a building, for instance, on one side contrasted by a group of trees, a large oak, or a rising hill on the other. Whence then does this taste proceed, but from the love we bear to regularity in perfection? After

all, in regard to gardens, the shape of ground, the disposition of trees, and the figure of water, must be sacred to nature, and no forms must be allowed that make a discovery of art.

All trees have a character analogous to that of men; oaks are in all respects the perfect image of the manly character: in former times I should have said, and in present times I think I am authorized to say, the British one. As a brave man is not suddenly either elated by prosperity, or depressed by adversity, so the oak displays not its verdure on the sun's first approach; nor drops it, on his first departure. Add to this its majestic appearance, the rough grandeur of its bark, and the wide projection of its branches.

A large, branching, aged oak is perhaps the most venerable of all inanimate objects.

Urns are more solemn, if large and plain; more beautiful, if less and ornamented. Solemnity is perhaps their point, and the situation of them should still co-operate with it.

By the way, I wonder that lead statues are not more in vogue in our modern gardens. Though they may not express the finer lines of an human body, yet they seem perfectly well calculated, on account of their duration, to embellish landscapes, were they some degrees inferior to what we generally behold. A statue in a room challenges examination, and is to be examined critically as a statue. A statue in a garden is to be considered as one part of a scene or landscape; the minuter touches are no more essential to it, than a good landscape painter would esteem them,

them, were he to represent a statue in his picture.

Apparent art, in its proper province, is almost as important as apparent nature. They contrast agreeably; but their provinces ever should be kept distinct.

Some artificial beauties are so dextrously managed that one cannot but conceive them natural; some natural ones so extremely fortunate that one is ready to swear they are artificial.

Concerning scenes, the more uncommon they appear, the better, provided they form a picture, and include nothing that pretends to be of nature's production, and is not. The shape of ground, the site of trees, and the fall of water, nature's province. Whatever thwarts her is treason.

On the other hand, buildings, and the works of art, need have no other references to nature than that they afford the *εὐγενέαν* with which the human mind is delighted.

Art should never be allowed to set a foot in the province of nature, otherwise than clandestinely and by night. Whenever she is allowed to appear here, and men begin to compromise the difference—Night, Gothicism, confusion, and absolute chaos are come again.

To see one's urns, obelisks, and water-falls laid open; the nakedness of our beloved mistresses, the naiads and the dryads, exposed by that ruffian winter to universal observation; is a severity scarcely to be supported by the help of blazing hearths, chearful companions, and a bottle of the most grateful burgundy.

The works of a person that builds, begin immediately to de-

cay; while those of him who plants begin directly to improve. In this planting promises a more lasting pleasure than building; which, were it to remain in equal perfection, would at best begin to moulder and want repairs in imagination. Now trees have a circumstance that suits our taste, and that is annual variety. It is inconvenient indeed, if they cause our love of life to take root and flourish with them; whereas the very sameness of our structures will, without the help of dilapidation, serve to wean us from our attachment to them.

It is a custom in some countries to condemn the characters of those (after death) that have neither planted a tree, nor begat a child.

The taste of the citizen and of the mere peasant are in all respects the same. The former gilds his halls; paints his stone-work and statues white; plants his trees in lines or circles; cuts his yew-trees four square or conic; or gives them what he can of the resemblance of birds, or bears, or men; squirts up his rivulet in jetteaus; in short, admires no part of nature but her ductility: exhibits every thing that is glaring, that implies expence, or that effects a surprize because it is unnatural. The peasant is his admirer.

It is always to be remembered in gardening, that sublimity or magnificence, and beauty or variety, are very different things. Every scene we see in nature is either tame and insipid, or compounded of those. It often happens that the same ground may receive from art, either certain degrees of sublimity and magnificence,

cence, or certain degrees of variety and beauty: or a mixture of each kind. In this case it remains to be considered in which light they can be rendered most remarkable, whether as objects of beauty, or magnificence. Even the temper of the proprietor should not perhaps be wholly disregarded; for certain complexions of soul will prefer an orange tree or a myrtle, to an oak or cedar. However this should not induce a gardener to parcel out a lawn into knots of shrubbery; or invest a mountain with a garb of roses. This would be like dressing a giant in a farset gown, or a saracen's head in a Brussels night-cap. Indeed the small and circular clumps of firs which I see planted upon some fine large swells, put me often in mind of a coronet placed on an elephant or camel's back. I say a gardener should not do this, any more than a poet should attempt to write of the king of Prussia in the style of Philips. On the other side, what would become of Lesbia's sparrow, should it be treated in the same language with the anger of Achilles?

Gardeners may be divided into three sorts, the landscape-gardener, the parterre-gardener, and the kitchen-gardener, agreeably to our first division of gardens.

I have used the word landscape-gardeners; because, in pursuance of our present taste in gardening, every good painter of landscape appears to me the most proper designer. The misfortune of it is, that these painters are apt to regard the execution of their work, much more than the choice of subject

The art of distancing and approximating comes truly within their sphere: the former by the gradual diminution of distinctness, and of size; the latter by the reverse. A strait-lined avenue, that is widened in front, and planted there with yew-trees, then firs, then with trees more and more fady, till they end in the almond, willow, or silver osier, will produce a very remarkable deception of the former kind; which deception will be increased, if the nearer dark trees are proportionable and truly larger than those at the end of the avenue that are more fady.

To distance a building, plant as near as you can to it, two or three circles of different-coloured greens. — Ever-greens are best for all such purposes — Suppose the outer of holly, and the next of laurel, &c. The consequence will be, that the imagination immediately allows a space betwixt these circles, and another betwixt the house and them: and as the imagined space is indeterminate, if your building be dim-coloured, it will not appear inconsiderable. The imagination is a greater magnifier than a microscopic glass. And on this head I have known some instances; where by shewing intermediate ground, the distance has appeared less, than while an hedge or grove concealed it.

Hedges, appearing as such, are universally bad. They discover art in nature's province.

Trees in hedges partake of their artificiality, and become a part of them. There is no more sudden, and obvious improvement, than an

an hedge removed, and the trees remaining; yet not in such manner as to mark out the former hedge.

Water should ever appear as an irregular lake, or winding stream.

Islands give beauty, if the water be adequate; but lessen grandeur through variety.

It was the wise remark of some sagacious observer, that familiarity is for the most part productive of contempt. Graceless offspring of so amiable a parent! Unfortunate beings that we are, whose enjoyments must be either checked, or prove destructive of themselves! Our passions are permitted to sip a little pleasure; but are extinguished by indulgence, like a lamp overwhelmed with oil. Hence we neglect the beauty with which we have been intimate; nor would any addition it could receive, prove an equivalent for the advantage it derived from the first impression. Thus negligent of graces that have the merit of reality, we too often prefer imaginary ones that have only the charm of novelty; and hence we may account in general for the preference of art to nature, in our old-fashioned gardens.

Art, indeed, is often requisite to collect and epitomize the beauties of nature; but should never be suffered to set her mark upon them: I mean in regard to those articles that are of nature's province; the shaping of ground, planting of trees, and the disposition of lakes and rivulets. Many more particulars will soon occur, which, however, she is allowed to regulate, somewhat clandestinely,

upon the following account.—

Man is not capable of comprehending the universe at one survey. Had he faculties equal to this, he might well be censured for any minute regulations of his own. It were the same, as if in his present situation, he strove to find amusement in contriving the fabric of an ant's nest, or the partitions of a bee-hive. But we are placed in the corner of a sphere; endued neither with organs, nor allowed a station, proper to give us an universal view; or to exhibit to us the variety, the orderly proportions, and dispositions of the system. We perceive many breaks and blemishes, several neglected and unvariegated places in the part, which in the whole would appear either imperceptible, or beautiful. And we might as rationally expect a snail to be satisfied with the beauty of our parterres, slopes, and terraces; or an ant to prefer our buildings to her own orderly range of granaries; as that man should be satisfied, without a single thought, that he can improve the spot that falls to his share. But, though art be necessary for collecting nature's beauties, by what reason is she authorized to thwart and to oppose her? Why fantastically endeavour to humanize those vegetables, of which nature, discreet nature, thought it proper to make trees? Why endow the vegetable bird with wings, which nature has made momentarily dependent upon the soil? Here art seems very affectingly to make a display of that industry, which it is her glory to conceal. The stone which re-
presents

presents an asterisk, is valued only on account of its natural production; nor do we view with-pleasure the laboured carvings and futile diligence of Gothic artists. We view with much more satisfaction some plain Grecian fabric, where art, indeed, has been equally, but less visibly industrious. It is thus we indeed admire the shining texture of the silk-worm; but we loath the puny author, when she thinks proper to emerge, and to disgust us with the appearance of so vile a grub.

But this is merely true in regard to the particulars of nature's province; wherein art can only appear as the most abject vassal, and had, therefore, better not appear at all. The case is different where she has the direction of buildings, useful or ornamental; or, perhaps, claims as much honour from temples, as the deities to whom they are inscribed. Here then it is her interest to be seen as much as possible: and, though nature appear doubly beautiful by the contrast her structures furnish, it is not easy for her to confer a benefit, which nature, on her side, will not repay.

A rural scene to me is never perfect without the addition of some kind of building: indeed I have known a scar of rock-work in great measure supply the deficiency.

In gardening it is no small point to enforce either grandeur or beauty, by surprize; for instance, by abrupt transition from their contraries—but to lay a stress upon surprize only; for example, on the surprize occasioned by an aha! without including any nobler pur-

pose, is a symptom of bad taste, and a violent fondness for mere conceit.

Grandeur and beauty are so very opposite, that you often diminish the one as you increase the other. Variety is most a-kin to the latter, simplicity to the former.

Suppose a large hill, varied by art, with large patches of different-coloured clumps, scars of rock, chalk-quarries, villages, or farm-houses; you will have, perhaps, a more beautiful scene, but much less grand than it was before.

In many instances, it is most eligible to compound your scene of beauty and grandeur.—Suppose a magnificent swell arising out of a well-variegated valley; it would be disadvantageous to increase its beauty by means destructive to its magnificence.

There may possibly, but there seldom happens any occasion to fill up valleys with trees, or otherwise. It is for the most part the gardener's business to remove trees, or aught that fills up the lower ground; and to give, as far as nature allows, an artificial eminence to the high.

The hedge-row apple-trees in Herefordshire afford a most beautiful scenery, at the time they are in blossom: but the prospect would be really grander, did it consist of simple foliage. For the same reason, a large oak (or beech) in autumn, is a grander object than the same in spring. The sprightly green is then obfuscated.

Smoothness and easy transitions are no small ingredient in the beautiful; abrupt and rectangular breaks have more of the nature of the sublime. Thus a tapering spire

spire is, perhaps, a more beautiful object than a tower, which is grander.

Many of the different opinions relating to the preference to be given to seats, villas, &c. are owing to want of distinction betwixt the beautiful and the magnificent. Both the former and the latter please: but there are imaginations particularly adapted to the one and to the other.

Mr. Addison thought an open uninclosed champain country formed the best landscape. Somewhat here is to be considered. Large, unvariegated, simple objects, have the best pretensions to sublimity; a large mountain, whose sides are unvaried with objects, is grander than one with infinite variety: but then its beauty is proportionably less.

However, I think, a plain space near the eye gives it a kind of liberty it loves; and then the picture, whether you chuse the grand or beautiful, should be held up at its proper distance. Variety is the principal ingredient in beauty; and simplicity is essential to grandeur.

Offensive objects, at a proper distance, acquire even a degree of beauty; for instance, stubble, fallow ground——

An original Letter from Mr. Pope to the Duchess of Hamilton.

London, Oct. the —, between day and night. The writer drunk.

Madam,

MR S. Whitworth (who, as her epitaph on Twickenham

* Lord William will construe this

highway assures us, had attained to as much perfection and purity as any since the apostles) is now deposited, according to her own order, between a fig-tree and a vine, there to be found out at the last resurrection.

I am just come from seeing your grace in much the like situation, between a honey-suckle and a rose bush; where you are to continue as long as canvas can last. I suppose the painter by these emblems intended to intimate, on the one hand, your grace's disposition to your friends; and on the other, to shew you are near enough related to the thistle of Scotland, to deserve the same motto with regard to our enemies:

Nemo me impune lacessit *.

The two foregoing periods, methinks, are so mystical, learned, and perplexed, that if you have any statesmen or divines about you, they can't chuse but be pleased with them. One divine you cannot be without, as a good christian: and a statesman you have lately had; for I hear my lord Selkirk has been with you. But (that I may not be unintelligible quite to the bottom of this page) I must tell your grace in English, that I have made a painter bestow the aforesaid ornaments round about you (for upon you there needs none) and am upon the whole pleased with my picture beyond expression.

I may now say of your picture, it is the thing in the world the likest you except yourself; as a cautious person once said of an

Latin, if you send it to Illeworth.

elephant;

elephant; it was the biggest in the world except itself.

You see, madam, it is not impossible for you to be compared to an elephant. And you must give me leave to shew you one may carry on the simile.

An elephant never bends his knees; and I am told your grace says no prayers. An elephant has a most remarkable command of his snout, and so has your grace, when you imitate my lady Orkney. An elephant is a great lover of men, and so is your grace, for all I know; though from your partiality to myself, I should rather think you love little children.

I beg you not to be discouraged in this point: remember the text which I'll preach upon the first day, I am a parson, *Suffer little children to come unto me—And, despise not one of these little ones.*

No, madam —— despise great beasts, such as Gay; who now goes by the dreadful name of, the beast of Blois, where Mr. Pulteney and he are settled, and where he shews tricks gratis, to all the beasts of his own country (for strangers do not yet understand the voice of the beast). I have heard from him but once, lord Warwick twice, Mrs. Lepel thrice: if there be any that has heard from him four times, I suppose it is you.

I beg Mr. Blundell may know Dr. Logg has received ordination, and enters on his functions this winter at Mr. Blount's. They have chosen this innocent man for their confessor; and I believe most

Roman catholic ladies, that have any sins, will follow their example. This good priest will be of the order of Melchisedec, a priest for ever, and serve a family from generation to generation. He'll stand in a corner as quietly as a clock, and being wound up once a week, strike up a loud alarm on a Sunday morning. Nay, if the Christian religion should be abolished (as indeed there is great reason to expect it, from the wisdom of the legislature) he might at worst make an excellent bonfire; which is all that (upon a change of religion) can be desired from an heretic. I do not hope your grace should be converted; but however, I wish you would call at Mrs. B—'s out of curiosity: to meet people one likes, is thought by some the best reason for going to church; and I dare promise you'll like one another: they are extremely your servants, or else I should not think them my friends.

I ought to keep up the custom, and ask you to send me something; therefore pray, madam, send me yourself; that is a letter; and pray make haste to bring up yourself, that is all I value, to town.

I am, with the truest respect; the least ceremony, and the most zeal,

Madam,

Your Grace's

most obedient, faithful,

and most humble servant,

A. POPE.

“Mr. Hamilton, I am your's.”

There is a short letter for you.

P O E T R Y.

ELEGY, *by* Mr. SHENSTONE.

W H Y mourns my friend? Why weeps his downcast eye?
 That eye where mirth, where fancy us'd to shine?
 Thy chearful meads reprove that swelling sigh;
 Spring ne'er enamell'd fairer meads than thine.

Art thou not lodg'd in fortune's warm embrace?
 Wert thou not form'd by nature's partial care?
 Blest in thy song, and blest in ev'ry grace
 That wins the friend, or that enchants the fair?

Damon, said he, thy partial praise restrain!
 Not Damon's friendship can my peace restore;
 Alas! his very praise awakes my pain,
 And my poor wounded bosom bleeds the more:

For oh! that nature on my birth had frown'd!
 Or fortune fix'd me to some lowly cell!
 Then had my bosom 'scap'd this fatal wound,
 Nor had I bid these vernal sweets farewell.

But led by Fortune's hand, her darling child,
 My youth her vain licentious blifs admir'd;
 In Fortune's train the syren Flattery smil'd,
 And rashly hallow'd all her queen inspir'd.

Of folly studious, ev'n of vices vain,
 Ah vices! gilded by the rich and gay!
 I chas'd the guileless daughters of the plain,
 Nor dropt the chase, till Jessy was my prey.

Poor artless maid! to stain thy spotless name,
 Expence, and art, and toil, united strove;
 To lure a breast that felt the purest flame,
 Sustain'd by virtue, but betray'd by love.

School'd

School'd in the science of love's mazy wiles,
 I cloath'd each feature with affected scorn;
 I spoke of jealous doubts, and fickle smiles,
 And, feigning, left her anxious and forlorn.

Then, while the fancy'd rage alarm'd her care,
 Warm to deny, and zealous to disprove;
 I bade my words the wonted softness wear;
 And seiz'd the minute of returning love.

To thee, my Damon, dare I paint the rest?
 Will yet thy love a candid ear incline?
 Assur'd that virtue, by misfortune prest,
 Feels not the sharpness of a pang like mine.

Nine envious moons matur'd her growing shame;
 Ere while to flaunt it in the face of day;
 When scorn'd of virtue, stigmatiz'd by fame,
 Low at my feet desponding Jessy lay.

“ Henry, she said, by thy dear form subdu'd,
 See the sad reliques of a nymph undone!
 I find, I find this rising sob renew'd:
 I sigh in shades, and sicken at the sun!

Amid the dreary gloom of night, I cry,
 When will the morn's once-pleasing scenes return?
 Yet what can morn's returning ray supply,
 But foes that triumph, or but friends that mourn?

Alas! no more that joyous morn appears
 That led the tranquil hours of spotless fame;
 For I have steep'd a father's couch in tears,
 And ting'd a mother's glowing cheek with shame!

The vocal birds that raise their matin strain,
 The sportive lambs, increase my pensive moan;
 All seem to chase me from the chearful plain,
 And talk of truth and innocence alone.

If through the garden's flow'ry tribes I stray,
 Where bloom the jasmims that could once allure,
 Hope not to find delight in us, they say,
 For we are spotless, Jessy; we are pure.

Ye flow'rs that well reproach a nymph so frail,
 Say, could ye with my virgin fame compare?
 The brightest bud that scents the vernal gale
 Was not so fragrant, and was not so fair.

Now the grave old alarm the gentler young ;
And all my fame's abhorr'd contagion flee ;
Trembles each lip, and falters every tongue,
That bids the morn propitious smile on me.

Thus for your sake I shun each human eye ;
I bid the sweets of blooming youth adieu ;
To die I languish, but I dread to die,
Lest my sad fate should nourish pangs for you.

Raise me from earth ; the pains of want remove,
And let me silent seek some friendly shore !
There only, banish'd from the form I love,
My weeping virtue shall relapse no more.

Be but my friend ; I ask no dearer name ;
Be such the meed of some more artful fair ;
Nor could it heal my peace, or chase my shame,
That pity gave, what love refus'd to share.

Force not my tongue to ask its scanty bread,
Nor hurl thy Jessy to the vulgar crew ;
Not such the parent's board at which I fed !
Not such the precept from his lips I drew !

Haply, when age has silver'd o'er my hair,
Malice may learn to scorn so mean a spoil ;
Envy may slight a face no longer fair ;
And pity, welcome, to my native foil."

She spoke—nor was I born of savage race ;
Nor could these hands a niggard boon assign ;
Grateful she clasp'd me in a last embrace,
And vow'd to waste her life in pray'rs for mine.

I saw her foot the lofty bark ascend ;
I saw her breast with every passion heave ;
I left her—torn from every earthly friend ;
Oh ! my hard bosom, which could bear to leave !

Brief let me be ; the fatal storm arose ;
The billows rag'd ; the pilot's art was vain ;
O'er the tall mast the circling surges close ;
My Jessy—floats upon the wat'ry plain !

And—see my youth's impetuous fires decay,
Seek not to stop reflection's bitter tear ;
But warn the frolic, and instruct the gay,
From Jessy floating on her wat'ry bier !

The NUN, an Elegy: by the Author of the Magdalens.

WITH each perfection dawning on her mind,
All beauty's treasure opening on her cheek,
Each flatt'ring hope subdued, each with resign'd,
Does gay Ophelia this lone mansion seek?

Say, gentle maid, what prompts thee to forsake
The paths thy birth and fortune strew with flow'rs?
Thro' nature's kind endearing ties to break,
And waste in cloyster'd walls thy pensive hours?

Let sober thought restrain thine erring zeal,
That guides thy footsteps to the vestal gate,
Lest thy soft heart (this friendship bids reveal)
Like mine unblest shou'd mourn like mine too late.

Does some angelic lonely-whisp'ring voice,
Some sacred impulse, or some dream divine,
Approve the dictates of thy early choice?—
Approach with confidence the awful shrine.

There kneeling at yon altar's marble base
(While tears of rapture from thine eye-lids steal,
And smiling Heav'n illumines thy soul with grace)
Pronounce the vow thou never can'st repeal.

Yet if misled by false-entitled friends,
Who say—"That Peace with all her comely train,
" From starry regions to this clime descends,
" Smooths ev'ry frown, and softens ev'ry pain:

" That vestals tread Contentment's flow'ry lawn,
" Approv'd of Innocence, by Health carest:
" That rob'd in colours bright, by Fancy drawn,
" Celestial Hope sits smiling at their breast."

Suspect their Syren song and artful style,
Their pleasing sounds some treach'rous thought conceal;
Full oft does Pride with fainted voice beguile,
And sordid Int'rest wear the mask of zeal.

A tyrant abbess here perchance may reign,
Who, fond of pow'r, affects th' imperial nod,
Looks down disdainful on her female train,
And rules the cloyster with an iron rod.

Reflection sickens at the life-long tie,
 Back-glancing Mem'ry acts her busy part,
 Its charms the world unfolds to Fancy's eye,
 And sheds allurements on the wishful heart.

Lo! Discord enters at the sacred porch,
 Rage in her frown, and terror on her crest:
 Ev'n at the hallow'd lamps she lights her torch,
 And holds it flaming to each virgin breast.

But since the legends of monastic bliss
 By Fraud are fabled, and by Youth believ'd,
 Unbought experience learn from my distress,
 Oh! mark my lot, and be no more deceiv'd.

Three lustres scarce with hasty wing were fled,
 When I was torn from ev'ry weeping friend,
 A thoughtless victim to the temple led,
 And (blush, ye parents!) by a father's hand.

Yet then what solemn scenes deceiv'd my choice!
 The pealing organ's animating sound,
 The choral virgin's captivating voice,
 The blazing altar, and the priests around:

The train of youths, array'd in purest white,
 Who scatter'd myrtles as I pass'd along:
 The thousand lamps that pour'd a flood of light,
 The kiss of peace from all the vestal throng.

The golden censers toss'd with graceful hand,
 Whose fragrant breath Arabian odour shed:
 Of meek-eyed novices the circling band,
 With blooming chaplets wove around their head.

—My willing soul was caught in rapture's flame,
 While sacred ardour glow'd in ev'ry vein:
 Methought applauding angels sung my name,
 And heav'n's un sullied glories gilt the fane.

This temporary transport soon expir'd,
 My drooping heart confess'd a dreadful void:
 E'er since, alas! abandon'd, uninspir'd,
 I tread this dome to Misery allied.

No wakening Joy informs my sullen breast,
 Thro' opening skies no radiant Seraph smiles,
 No saint descends to soothe my soul to rest,
 No dream of bliss the dreary night beguiles.

Here haggard Discontent still haunts my view ;
 The sombre genius reigns in ev'ry place,
 Arrays each virtue in the darkest hue,
 Chills ev'ry pray'r, and cancels ev'ry grace.

I meet her ever in the cheerless cell,
 The gloomy grotto and unsocial wood :
 I hear her ever in the midnight bell,
 The hollow gale, and hoarse-resounding flood.

This caus'd a mother's tender tears to flow,
 (The sad remembrance time shall ne'er erase)
 When having seal'd th' irrevocable vow,
 I hasten'd to receive her last embrace.

Full-well she then presag'd my wretched fate,
 Th' unhappy moments of each future day :
 When lock'd within this terror-shedding grate,
 My joy-deserted soul would pine away.

Yet ne'er did her maternal voice unfold
 This cloister'd scene in all its horror dress ;
 Nor did she then my trembling steps withhold
 When here I enter'd a reluctant guest.

Ah ! could she view her only child betray'd,
 And let submission o'er her love prevail !
 Th' unfeeling priest why did she not upbraid ?
 Forbid the vow, and rend the hov'ring veil ?

Alas ! she might not—her relentless lord
 Had seal'd her lips, and chid her streaming tear ;
 So anguish in her breast conceal'd its hoard,
 And all the mother sunk in dumb despair.

But thou who own'st a father's sacred name,
 What act impell'd thee to this ruthless deed ?
 What crime had forfeited my filial claim ?
 And giv'n (oh blasting thought ! thy heart to bleed !

If then thine injur'd child deserve thy care,
 Oh haste and bear her from this lonesome gloom !
 In vain—no words can soothe his rigid ear :
 And Gallia's laws have rivetted my doom.

Ye cloister'd fair—ye censure-breathing saints,
 Suppress your taunts, and learn at length to spare,
 Tho' mid these holy walls I vent my plaints,
 And give to sorrow what is due to pray'r.

I fled not to this mansion's deep recess,
To veil the blushes of a guilty shame,
The tenor of an ill-spent life redress,
And snatch from infamy a sinking name.

Yet let me to my fate submissive bow :
From fatal symptoms, if I right conceive,
This stream, Ophelia, has not long to flow,
This voice to murmur, and this breast to heave.

Ah ! when extended on th' untimely bier
To yonder vault this form shall be convey'd,
Thou'lt not refuse to shed one grateful tear,
And breathe the *requiem* to my fleeting shade.

With pious footstep join the sable train,
As thro' the lengthening isle they take their way :
A glimmering taper let thy hand sustain,
Thy soothing voice attune the funeral lay :

Behold the minister who lately gave
The sacred veil, in garb of mournful hue,
(More friendly office) bending o'er my grave,
And sprinkling my remains with hallow'd dew :

As o'er the corse he strews the rattling dust,
The sternest heart will raise compassion's sigh :
Ev'n then, no longer to his child unjust,
The tears may trickle from a *father's* eye.

Characters of the Italians and Swiss contrasted.

From the Traveller, or a Prospect of Society, a Poem, by Dr. Goldsmith.

FAR to the right, where Appennine ascends
Bright as the summer, Italy extends ;
Her uplands sloping deck the mountain's side,
Woods over woods, in gay theatric pride ;
While oft some temple's mould'ring top between,
With venerable grandeur marks the scene.

Could Nature's bounty satisfy the breast,
The sons of Italy were surely blest.
Whatever fruits in different climes are found,
That proudly rise or humbly court the ground ;
Whatever blooms in torrid tracts appear,
Whose bright succession decks the varied year ;
Whatever sweets salute the northern sky
With vernal lives that blossom but to die ;
These here disporting, own the kindred soil,
Nor ask luxuriance from the planter's toil ;

While

While sea-born gales their gelid wings expand
To winnow fragrance round the smiling land.

But small the bliss that sense alone bestows,
And sensual bliss is all this nation knows.
In florid beauty groves and fields appear,
Men seem the only growth that dwindles here.
Contrasted faults through all their manners reign,
Though poor, luxurious; though submissive, vain;
Though grave, yet trifling; zealous, yet untrue;
And even in penance planning sins anew.
All evils here contaminate the mind,
That opulence departed, leaves behind;
For wealth was theirs, nor far remov'd the date,
When Commerce proudly flourish'd through the state:
At her command the palace learnt to rise,
Again the long-fall'n column sought the skies;
The canvass glow'd beyond even nature warm,
The pregnant quarry teem'd with human form.
But, more unsteady than the southern gale,
Soon Commerce turn'd on other shores her sail;
And late the nation found, with fruitless skill,
Their former strength was now plethoric ill.

Yet, though to fortune lost, here still abide
Some splendid arts, the wrecks of former pride;
For which the feeble heart and long-fall'n mind
An easy compensation seem to find.
Here may be seen, in bloodless pomp array'd,
The paste-board triumph, and the cavalcade;
Processions form'd for piety and love,
A mistress or a saint in every grove.
By sports like these are all their cares beguil'd,
The sports of children satisfy the child,
At sports like these, while foreign arms advance,
In passive ease they leave the world to chance.

When struggling Virtue sinks by long controul,
She leaves at last, or feebly mans the soul,
While low delights, succeeding fast behind,
In happier meanness occupy the mind:
As in those domes, where Cæsars once bore sway,
Defac'd by time and tottering in decay,
Amidst the ruin, heedless of the dead,
The shelter-seeking peasant builds his shed,
And, wond'ring man could want the larger pile,
Exults, and owns his cottage with a smile.

My soul turn from them, turn we to survey
 Where rougher climes a nobler race display,
 Where the bleak Swifs their stormy mansions tread,
 And force a churlish soil for scanty bread;
 No product here the barren hills afford,
 But man and steel, the soldier and his sword.
 No vernal blooms their torpid rocks array,
 But winter lingering chills the lap of May;
 No zephyr fondly soothes the mountain's breast,
 But meteors glare, and stormy glooms invest:
 Yet still, even here, Content can spread a charm,
 Redress the clime, and all its rage disarm.
 Tho' poor the peasant's hut, his feast tho' small,
 He sees his little lot, the lot of all;
 Sees no contiguous palace rear its head
 To shame the meanness of his humble shed;
 No costly lord the sumptuous banquet deal
 To make him loath his vegetable meal;
 But calm, and bred in ignorance and toil,
 Each with contracting, fits him to the soil.
 Cheerful at morn he wakes from short repose,
 Breathes the keen air, and carols as he goes;
 With patient angle trolls the finny deep,
 Or drives his vent'rous plough-share to the steep;
 Or seeks the den where snow-tracks mark the way,
 And drags the struggling savage into day.
 At night returning, every labour sped,
 He sits him down the monarch of a shed;
 Smiles by his cheerful fire, and round surveys
 His children's looks, that brighten at the blaze;
 While his lov'd partner, boastful of her hoard,
 Displays the cleanly platter on the board;
 And haply too some pilgrim, thither led,
 With many a tale repays the nightly bed.

Thus every good his native wilds impart,
 Imprints the patriot passion on his heart.
 Dear is that shed to which his soul conforms,
 And dear that hill which lifts him to the storms;
 And as a babe, when scaring sounds molest,
 Clings close and closer to the mother's breast;
 So the loud torrent, and the whirlwind's roar,
 But bind him to his native mountains more.

These are the charms to barren states assign'd;
 Their wants are few, their wishes all confin'd.

Yet let them only share the praises due,
 If few their wants, their pleasures are but few;
 Since every want, that stimulates the breast,
 Becomes a source of pleasure when redrest.
 Hence from such lands, each pleasing science flies,
 That first excites desire, and then supplies;
 Unknown to them, when sensual pleasures cloy,
 To fill the languid pause with finer joy;
 Unknown those powers that raise the soul to flame,
 Catch every nerve, and vibrate through the frame.
 Their level life is but a smould'ring fire,
 Nor quench'd by want, nor fann'd by strong desire;
 Unfit for raptures, or, if raptures cheer,
 On some high festival of once a year,
 In wild excess the vulgar breast takes fire,
 Till, buried in debauch, the bliss expire.

But not their joys alone thus coarsely flow:
 Their morals, like their pleasures, are but low.
 For, as refinement stops, from fire to son
 Unalter'd, unimprov'd their manners run,
 And love's and friendship's finely-pointed dart
 Fall blunted from each indurated heart.
 Some sterner virtues o'er the mountain's breast
 May sit, like falcons cowering on the nest;
 But all the gentler morals, such as play
 Thro' life's more cultur'd walks, and charm our way,
 These far dispers'd, on timorous pinions fly,
 To sport and flutter in a kinder sky.

A Description of the Ancient Britons. From Churchill.

—S Tretch'd out in length,
 Where Nature put forth all her strength
 In Spring eternal, lay a plain,
 Where our brave fathers us'd to train
 Their sons to arms, to teach the art
 Of war, and steel the infant heart.
Labour, their hardy nurse when young,
 Their joints had knit, their nerves had strung;
Abstinence, foe declar'd to death,
 Had, from the time they first drew breath,
 The best of doctors, with plain food,
 Kept pure the channel of their blood;
Health in their cheeks bade colour rise,
 And glory sparkled in their eyes.

The instruments of husbandry,
 As in contempt, were all thrown by,
 And flattering a manly pride,
 War's keener tools their place supply'd.
 Their arrows to the head they drew;
 Swift to the point their jav'lines flew;
 They grasp'd the sword, they shook the spear;
 Their fathers felt a pleasing fear.
 And even *Courage*, standing by,
 Scarcely beheld with steady eye.
 Each stripling, lesson'd by his fire,
 Knew when to close, when to retire,
 When near at hand, when from afar
 To fight, and was himself a war.
 Their wives, their mothers all around,
 Careless of order, on the ground
 Breath'd forth to heaven the pious vow,
 And for a son's or husband's brow,
 With eager fingers laurel wove;
 Laurel, which in the sacred grove
 Planted by Liberty they find,
 The brows of conquerors to bind,
 To give them pride and spirits, fit
 To make a world in arms submit.

What raptures did the bosom fire
 Of the young, rugged, peasant fire,
 When, from the toil of mimic fight,
 Returning with return of night,
 He saw his babe resign the breast,
 And, smiling, stroke those arms in jest,
 With which hereafter he shall make
 The proudest heart in *Gallia* quake!

Gods! with what joy, what honest pride,
 Did each fond, wishing, rustic bride,
 Behold her manly swain return!
 How did her love-sick bosom burn!
 Tho' on parades he was not bred,
 Nor wore the livery of red,
 When, pleasure height'ning all her charms,
 She strain'd her warrior in her arms,
 And begg'd, whilst Love and Glory fire,
 A son, a son just like his fire!

State of the Savages. From Churchill.

HAPPY the Savage of those early times,
 Ere Europe's sons were known, and Europe's crimes!
 Gold,

Gold, cursed gold! slept in the womb of earth,
 Unfelt its mischiefs, as unknown its worth;
 In full content he found the truest wealth;
 In toil he found diversion, food, and health;
 Strange to the ease and luxury of courts,
 His sports were labours, and his labours sports;
 His youth was hardy, and his old age green:
 Life's morn was vig'rous, and her eve serene;
 No rules he held, but what were made for use;
 No arts he learn'd, nor ills which arts produce;
 False lights he follow'd, but believ'd them true;
 He knew not much, but liv'd to what he knew.

Happy, thrice happy, now the savage race,
 Since Europe took their gold, and gave them grace!
 Pastors she sends to help them in their need,
 Some who can't write, with others who can't read;
 And, on sure ground the gospel pile to rear,
 Sends missionary felons every year;
 Our vices, with more zeal than holy pray'rs,
 She teaches them, and in return takes theirs;
 Her rank oppressions gave them cause to rise;
 Her want of prudence means and arms supplies,
 Whilst her brave rage, not satisfy'd with life,
 Rising in blood, adopts the Scalping-knife;
 Knowledge she gives, enough to make them know
 How abject is their state, how deep their woe;
 The worth of freedom strongly she explains,
 Whilst she bows down, and loads their necks with chains;
 Faith too she plants, for her own ends impress,
 To make them bear the worst, and hope the best;
 And whilst she teaches on vile int'rest's plan,
 As laws of God, the wild decrees of man,
 Like Pharisees, of whom the Scriptures tell,
 She makes them ten times more the sons of hell.

But whither do these grave reflections tend?
 Are they design'd for any or no end?
 Briefly but this—to prove, that by no act
 Which nature made, that by no equal pact
 Twixt man and man, which might, if justice heard,
 Stand good, that by no benefits conferr'd,
 Or purchase made, Europe in chains can hold
 The sons of India, and her mines of gold.

PEASANT and KING contrasted. *From Churchill.*

THE villager born humbly, and bred hard,
 Content his wealth, and poverty his guard,

In action simply just, in conscience clear,
 By guilt untainted, undisturb'd by fear,
 His means but scanty, and his wants but few,
 Labour his bus'ness and his pleasure too,
 Enjoys more comforts in a single hour,
 Than ages give the wretch condemn'd to pow'r:
 Call'd up by health, he rises with the day,
 And goes to work, as if he went to play,
 Whistling off toils, one half of which might make
 The stoutest Atlas of a palace quake;
 'Gainst heat and cold, which make us cowards faint,
 Harden'd by constant use, without complaint
 He bears, what we should think it death to bear;
 Short are his meals, and homely is his fare;
 His thirst he flakes at some pure neighb'ring brook,
 Nor asks for sauce, where appetite stands cook.
 When the dews fall, and when the sun retires
 Behind the mountains, when the village fires,
 Which wakened all at once, speak supper nigh,
 At distance catch, and fix his longing eye,
 Homeward he hies, and with his manly brood
 Of raw-bon'd cubs, enjoys that clean coarse food,
 Which season'd with good-humour, his fond bride
 'Gainst his return is happy to provide.
 Then free from care, and free from thought, he creeps
 Into his straw, and till the morning sleeps.

Not so the king; with anxious cares oppress'd,
 His bosom labours, and admits not rest.
 A glorious wretch, he sweats beneath the weight
 Of majesty, and gives up ease for state;
 Ev'n when his smiles, which by the fools of pride
 Are treasur'd and preserv'd, from side to side
 Fly round the court; ev'n when compell'd by form
 He seems most calm, his court is in a storm.
Care, like a spectre seen by him alone,
 With all her nest of vipers round his throne,
 By day crawls full in view; when night bids sleep,
 Sweet nurse of nature, o'er the senses creep;
 When misery herself no more complains,
 And slaves, if possible, forget their chains;
 Tho' his sense weakens, tho' his eye grows dim,
 That rest, which comes to all, comes not to him.
 Ev'n at that hour, *Care*, tyrant *Care* forbids
 The dew of sleep to fall upon his lids;
 From night to night she watches at his bed;
 Now, as one mop'd, sits brooding o'er his head;
 Anon she starts, and borne on raven's wings,
 Croaks forth aloud—Sleep was not made for kings.

A CHARACTER. *From* CHURCHILL.

FROM his youth upwards to the present day,
 When vices more than years have mark'd him grey,
 When riotous excess with wasteful hand
 Shakes life's frail glass, and hastes each ebbing sand,
 Unmindful from what stock he drew his birth,
 Untainted with one deed of real worth,
 Lothario, holding honour at no price,
 Folly to folly added, vice to vice,
 Wrought sin with greediness, and sought for shame
 With greater zeal than good men seek for fame.

Where (reason left without the least defence)
 Laughter was mirth, obscenity was sense,
 Where impudence made decency submit,
 Where noise was humour, and where whim was wit,
 Where rude untemper'd licence had the merit
 Of liberty, and lunacy was spirit,
 Where the best things were ever held the worst,
 Lothario was, with justice, always first.

To whip a top, to knuckle down at taw,
 To swing upon a gate, to ride a straw,
 To play at push-pin with dull brother peers,
 To belch out catches in a porter's ears,
 To reign the monarch of a midnight cell,
 To be the gaping chairman's oracle,
 Whilst, in most blessed union rogue and whore
 Clap hands, huzza, and hiccup out, Encore.
 Whilst grey authority, who slumbers there
 In robes of watchman's fur, gives up his chair,
 With midnight howl to bay th' affrighted moon,
 To walk with torches thro' the streets at noon,
 To force plain nature from her usual way,
 Each night a vigil, and a blank each day,
 To match for speed one feather 'gainst another,
 To make one leg run races with his brother,
 'Gainst all the rest to take the northern wind,
 ——— to ride first, and he to ride behind,
 To coin new-fangled wagers, and to lay 'em,
 Laying to lose, and losing not to pay 'em;
 Lothario, on that stock which nature gives,
 Without a rival stands, tho' ——— yet lives.

When Folly (at that name, in duty bound,
 Let subject myriads kneel, and kiss the ground,
 Whilst they, who in the presence upright stand,
 Are held as rebels thro' the loyal land)

Queen every where, but most a queen in courts,
 Sent forth her heralds, and proclaim'd her sports,
 Bade fool with fool on her behalf engage,
 And prove her right to reign from age to age;
 Lothario, great above the common size,
 With all engag'd, and won from all the prize;
 Her cap he wears, which from his youth he wore,
 And every day deserves it more and more.

Nor in such limits rest his soul confin'd;
 Folly may share, but can't engross his mind;
 Vice, bold, substantial vice, puts in her claim,
 And stamps him perfect in the books of shame.
 Observe his follies well, and you will swear
 Folly had been his first, his only care;
 Observe his vices, you'll that oath disown,
 And swear that he was born for vice alone.
 Is the soft nature of some easy maid,
 Fond, easy, full of faith, to be betray'd,
 Must she, to virtue lost, be lost to fame,
 And he who wrought her guilt, declare her shame?
 Is some brave friend, who, men but little known,
 Deems every heart as honest as his own,
 And, free himself, in others fears no guile,
 To be ensnar'd, and ruin'd with a smile?
 Is law to be perverted from her course?
 Is abject fraud to league with brutal force?
 Is freedom to be crush'd, and every son,
 Who dares maintain her cause, to be undone?
 Is base corruption, creeping through the land,
 To plan, and work her ruin, underhand,
 With regular approaches, sure tho' slow,
 Or must she perish by a single blow?
 Are kings (who trust to servants, and depend
 In servants (fond, vain thought!) to find a friend)
 To be abus'd, and made to draw their breath
 In darkness thicker than the shades of death?
 Is God's most holy name to be prophan'd,
 His word rejected, and his laws arraign'd,
 His servants scorn'd, as men who idly dream'd,
 His service laugh'd at, and his Son blasphem'd?
 Are debauchees in morals to preside?
 Is faith to take an atheist for her guide?
 Is science by a blockhead to be led?
 Are states to totter on a drunkard's head?
 To answer all these purposes, and more,
 More black than ever villain plann'd before,
 Search earth, search hell, the devil cannot find
 An agent, like Lothario, to his mind.

Is this nobility, which, sprung from kings,
 Was meant to swell the power from whence it springs?
 Is this the glorious produce, this the fruit,
 Which nature hop'd for from so rich a root?
 Were there but two (search all the world around)
 Were there but two such nobles to be found,
 The very name would sink into a term
 Of scorn, and man would rather be a worm
 Than be a lord; but nature, full of grace,
 Nor meaning birth and titles to debase,
 Made only one, and, having made him, swore,
 In mercy to mankind to make no more.
 Nor stopp'd she there, but like a generous friend,
 The ills which error caus'd she strove to mend,
 And, having brought Lothario forth to view,
 To save her credit, brought forth —— too.

To Mr. R. laid up with a fit of the Gout, by Mr. L. confined in the Fleet.

T H E R E is a magic in sweet sounds
 Which draws forth every thing but—pounds.
 By mystic song's commanding tune,
 Medea could unhinge the moon.
 At old Amphion's plastic call
 The stones jump'd up, and form'd a wall.
 The priests loud horns began to blow,
 Down went the walls of Jericho.
 The sailors, people not renown'd
 For nice intelligence of sound,
 Chuck'd poor Arion fairly o'er,
 To swim at least nine leagues to shore,
 Down fiddle went, and fidler—pish!
 He got a horseback on a fish!
 You see the force of music here,
 Your dolphins have a charming ear.
 Young Orpheus, whom you oft have seen
 In playhouse suit of lightest green,
 Scarce sweetly swept the whizzing wire;
 When at the magic of his lyre,
 From cunning trap-doors of the earth
 Sprang trees of instantaneous birth,
 While all responsive to his airs,
 Leapt bulls, and wolves, and dancing bears.
 When David sung, what some folks call
 (See Doctor Brown) the *Cure of Saul*,
 He touch'd the monarch to the quick,
 Like Orpheus when he sooth'd old Nic.
 A foaming wolf, relentless, fierce,
 Who never heard one word of verse,

Came

Came rushing from a neighb'ring wood,
 Just where the careless poet stood :
 But * Horace (was he much to blame?)
 Humm'd a short ode—the wolf grew tame,
 And went as empty as he came.

Strange pow'r of verse in ancient times !
 Lost in our luckless land of rhimes :
 All things are tending to decay,
 Poor Nature's in a palsy'd way.
 Now kings may *touch* and *touch* again,
 The *Royal Evil* will remain ;
 And modern bards, and scepter'd kings,
 Are equally *ungifted* things.
 Not all the lays we lay-men make
 Can charm away the belly-ache.
 Can numbers numb the twinging gout,
 And bring the cripple dancing out ?
 Say, can I soothe, with carol sweet,
 The Cerberus who guards the Fleet ?
 Can I, by rhyme's, harmonious aid,
 Charm Argus *turnkeys* from their trade ?
 Their mind on other passions rolls,
They have no music in their souls.
 While on their accents senates hung,
 When rhet'ric spoke from Tully's tongue,
 While he pursu'd his surest art
 To wind him into Cæsar's heart,
 As if the words had pierc'd his soul,
 The artful Cæsar dropp'd his scroll.
 Wonders we cannot work like these,
 Sing what you list, say what you please,
 J——n will hear, yet keep his keys.
 Say, will my song, *da capo'd* o'er,
Piano soft, *Andante* roar,
 Though even Handel set the air,
 Call up one tree to shade the *Bare* ?
 Though I burst both my cheeks for spite,
 And blow aloud from morn to night,
 The trumpet, flute, and horn and all——
 The devil of a brick will fall ;
 And poetry like mine, I trust,
 Can neither raise a wall, nor crust.
 In that loose cash, however strong,
 Who'll take the payment of a song ?
 What wolf will now forego his prey
 For all that I can sing or say ?

My rhimes, alas! will *catch no fish*,
 To swim in sauce upon my dish;
 And for *these* notes, however clear,
 Will the next * Dolphin give me beer?

Alas! my friend, how vain our boast!
 The ancients still must *rule the roast*:
 They could raise walls by music's spell,
 Bring trees from earth and wives from hell;
 But fruitless we may pipe and thrum,
 Nor wives, nor trees, nor walls will come.

Though you, like Phœbus, sweetly sing,
 Though I should soar on Pindar's wing,
 Yet neither tune nor words avail;
 The gout's a gout, a jail's a jail.
 What is to us, or prose or rhyme,
 My measur'd verse, your measur'd time?
 Have we not lost all use of *feet*,
 You in the *Gout*, I in the *Fleet*?

The D Y I N G S A I N T.

I.

W H E N life's tempestuous storms are o'er;
 How calm he meets the friendly shore,
 Who liv'd averse to sin,
 Such peace on virtue's path attends,
 That where the sinner's pleasure ends,
 The good man's joys begin.

II.

See smiling patience smooth his brow!
 See bending angels downward bow!
 To lift his soul on high;
 While eager for the blest abode,
 He joins with them to praise the God
 Who taught him how to die.

III.

The horrors of the grave and hell,
 Those horrors which the wicked feel,
 In vain their gloom display;
 For he who bids yon comet burn,
 Or makes the night descend, can turn
 Their darkness into day.

* *The Dolphin, a public house in Ludgate-street.*

IV.

No sorrow drowns his lifted eyes,
 No horror wrests the struggling sighs,
 As from the sinner's breast;
 His God, the God of peace and love,
 Pours kindly solace from above,
 And heals his soul with rest.

V.

O grant, my Saviour, and my friend!
 Such joys may gild my peaceful end,
 And calm my evening close;
 While loos'd from every earthly tie,
 With steady confidence I fly
 To him from whence I rose.

The LIBERTINE REPULSED.

HENCE, *Belmour*, perfidious! this instant retire,
 No further intreaties employ,
 Nor meanly pretend any more to admire,
 What basely you wish to destroy.

Say, youth, must I madly rush on upon shame,
 If a traitor but artfully sighs;
 And eternally part with my honour and fame
 For a compliment paid to my eyes?

If a flame all dishonest be vilely profess,
 Thro' tenderness must I incline,
 And seek to indulge the repose of a breast,
 That would plant endless tortures in mine?

No, *Belmour*——a passion I can't but despise,
 Shall never find way to my ears;
 Nor a man meet a glance of regard from these eyes,
 That would drench them for ever in tears.

Can the lover who thinks, nay, who wishes me base,
 Expect that I e'er should be kind?
 Or atone with a paltry address to my face,
 For the injury done to my mind?

Hence, *Belmour*, this instant, and cease every dream
 Which your hope saw so foolishly born;
 Nor vainly imagine to gain my esteem,
 By deserving my hate and my scorn.

BENEVOLENCE. *An ODE.**Inscribed to my Friends.**By James Woodhouse, a Journeyman Shoemaker.*

LET others boast Palladian skill
 The sculptur'd dome to raise;
 To scoop the vale, to swell the hill,
 Or lead the smooth meand'ring rill
 In ever-varying maze;
 To strike the lyre
 With Homer's fire,
 Or Sappho's tender art;
 Or Handel's notes with sweeter strains inspire:
 O'er Phidias' chissel to preside,
 Or Titian's glowing pencil guide
 Through ev'ry living part.
 Ah! what avails it thus to shine,
 By every art refin'd;
 Except BENEVOLENCE combine
 To humanize the mind;
 The Parian floor,
 Or vivid ceiling, fresco'd o'er,
 With glaring charms the gazing eye may fire;
 Yet may their lords, like statues cold,
 Devoid of sympathy, behold
 Fair worth with penury depress'd,
 Or indigence, expire;
 Nor ever know the noblest use of gold.
 'Tis yours, with sympathetic breast,
 To stop the rising sigh,
 And wipe the tearful eye,
 Nor let repining merit sue unblest;
 This is a more applausive taste
 Than spending wealth
 In gorgeous waste,
 Or with dire luxury destroying health;
 It sweetens life with ev'ry virtuous joy,
 And wings the conscious hours with gladness as they fly.

PROLOGUE *to the* AUTHOR.

SEvere their task, who in this critic age,
 With fresh materials furnish out the the stage!
 Not that our fathers drain'd the comic store;
 Fresh characters spring up as heretofore—
 Nature with novelty does still abound;
 On every side fresh follies may be found.
 But then the taste of every guest to hit,
 To please at once the gall'ry, box, and pit,
 Requires at least—no common share of wit.

}

Those who adorn the higher orb of life,
 Demand the lively rake, or modish wife;
 Whilst they, who in a lower circle move,
 Yawn at their wit, and slumber at their love.
 If light, how mirth employs the comic scene,
 Such mirth as drives from vulgar minds the spleen;
 The polish'd critic damns the wretched stuff,
 And cries,—“ 'Twill please the gall'ries well enough.”
 Such jarring judgments who can reconcile,
 Since fops will frown, where humble traders smile?

To dash the poet's ineffectual claim,
 And quench his thirst for universal fame,
 The Grecian fabulist, in moral lay,
 Has thus address'd the writers of this day.

Once on a time, a son and sire, we're told,
 The stripling tender, and the father old,
 Purchas'd a jack-ass at a country fair,
 To ease their limbs, and hawk about their ware:
 But as the sluggish animal was weak,
 They fear'd, if both should mount, his back would break;
 Up gets the boy; the father leads the ass,
 And through the gazing crowd attempts to pass.
 Forth from the throng the grey-beards hobble out,
 And hail the cavalcade with feeble shout:
 “ This the respect to reverend age you shew?
 And this the duty you to parents owe?
 He beats the hoof; and you are set astride;
 Sirrah! get down, and let your father ride.”
 As Grecian lads were seldom void of grace,
 The decent, duteous youth resign'd his place:
 Then a fresh murmur through the rabble ran;
 Boys, girls, wives, widows, all attack the man:
 “ Sure never was brute beast so void of nature!
 Have you no pity for the pretty creature?

To

To your own baby can you be unkind?
 Here—*Suke, Bill, Betty*—put the child behind.”
 Old *Dapple* next the clowns’ compassion claim’d;
 “ ’Tis wonderment, them boobies be’n’t asham’d.
 Two at a time upon a poor dumb beast!
 They might as well have carry’d he at least.”
 The pair, still pliant to the partial voice,
 Dismount and bear the ass—Then what a noise!
 Huzzas—loud laughs, low gibe, and bitter joke,
 From the yet silent fire these words provoke;
 “ Proceed, my boy, nor heed their farther call,
 Vain his attempt, who strives to please them all.”

The WAY to be WISE.

Imitated from La Fontaine.

POOR Jenny, am’rous, young, and gay,
 Having by man been led astray,
 To nunn’ry dark retir’d;
 There liv’d, and look’d so like a maid,
 So seldom eat, so often pray’d,
 She was by all admir’d.

The lady abbess oft would cry,
 If any sister trod awry,
 Or prov’d an idle flattern:
 “ See wife and pious Mrs. Jane;
 “ A life so strict, so grave a mien,
 “ Is sure a worthy pattern.”

A pert young slut at length replies,
 “ Experience, madam, makes folks wise,
 “ ’Tis that has made her such;
 “ And we, poor souls, no doubt, should be
 “ As pious and as wise as she,
 “ If we had seen as much.”

A Madame De La Condamine, le Lendemain de ses Noces.

D’Aurore et de Titon vous connoissez l’Histoire?
 Nôtre Hymen en rappelle aujourd’hui la Memoire;

Mais de mon sort Titon feroit jaloux,
 Que se Liens sont differens dès nôtres !
 L'Aurore entre ses bras vit vieillir son Epoux,
 Et je rajeunis dans les vôtres.

M. DE LA CONDAMINE.

I M I T A T E D.

M. De La Condamine to his Lady, the Morning after their Wedding.

THUS match'd of old, Tithonus and Aurora ;
 I and Tithonus both old fellows ;
 His wife like mine, more beautiful than Flora,
 Yet I should make Tithonus jealous.

Though strong his love, though great her charms,
 Their union was less blest than ours :
 Aurora's spouse grew older in her arms,
 You make me young again in yours.

*Sir WILLIAM YOUNG to his Lady, on having one of his eyes
 beat out.*

HOW vain are all the joys of man,
 By nature born to certain sorrow ;
 Since none, not even the wisest, can,
 Insure the pleasures of to-morrow !

These eyes, so late my envied boast,
 By Celia priz'd above all other,
 See one, alas ! for ever lost,
 Its fellow weeping for its brother.

Yet still I'm blest while one remains,
 For viewing lovely Celia's beauty ;
 Her looks still ease acutest pains,
 With tenderest love, and chearful duty.

Had I for her in battle strove,
 The fatal blow I'd borne with pleasure ;
 And still, to prove my constant love,
 With joy I'd lose my single treasure.

Even

Even then the beauties of her mind
 Would amply blefs her faithful lover;
 He must be deaf as well as blind,
 Who can't my Celia's charms discover.

Even then I'd find one solid bliss,
 Which heaven to me alone dispenses;
 Tho' deaf and blind, her balmy kifs
 Would ravish the remaining senses.

Epitaphe de REGNIER. Fait par lui même.

J'AI vécû fans nul pensément,
 Me laissant aller doucement
 A la bonne loy naturelle;
 Et je m'estonne fort pourquoy
 La mort osa songer à moy,
 Qui ne songeay jamais en elle.

REIGNIER's *Epitaph. Made by himself.*

GAILY I liv'd as ease and nature taught,
 And spent my little life without a thought;
 And am amaz'd that death, that tyrant grim,
 Should think of me, who never thought of him.

Lines stuck on the Temple Gate.

AS by the Templars holds you go,
 The *horse* and *lamb*, display'd
 In emblematic figures, shew
 The merits of their trade.

That clients may infer from thence
 How just is their profession,
 The *lamb* sets forth their *innocence*,
 The *horse* their *expedition*.

O happy Britons! happy isle!
 Let foreign nations say,
 Where you get justice without guile,
 And law without delay.

EPIGRAM *on the* NEW PAVEMENT.

THE new Scottish pavement is worthy of praise,
 We're indebted to Scotland, for *mending our ways*;
 But, what we can never forgive 'em some say,
 Is, that they have taken our *posts* all away.

From the ST. JAMES'S MAGAZINE.

The Candle and Snuffers. A Fable. By Robert Lloyd, M. A.

“NO author ever spar'd a brother:
 “Wits are game cocks to one another.”
 But no antipathy so strong,
 Which acts so fiercely, lasts so long,
 As that which rages in the breast
 Of *critic*, and of *wit* profess:
 When, eager for some bold emprise,
Wit, Titan-like, affects the skies,
 When, full of energy divine,
 The mighty dupe of all the nine,
 Bids his kite soar on paper wing,
 The critic comes, and cuts the string;
 Hence dire contention often grows
 'Twixt man of verse, and man of prose;
 While prose-man deems the verse-man fool,
 And measures wit by line and rule,
 And, as he lops off fancy's limb,
 Turns executioner of whim;
 While Genius, which too oft disdains
 To bear e'en honourable chains,
 (Such as a sheriff's self might wear,
 Or grace the wisdom of a may'r)
 Turns rebel to dame REASON's throne,
 And holds no judgment like his own.
 Yet while they spatter mutual dirt,
 In idle threats, that cannot hurt,
 Methinks they waste a deal of time,
 Both fool in prose, and fool in rhyme;
 And when the angry bard exclaims,
 And calls a thousand paltry names,
 He doth his critic mighty wrong,
 And hurts the dignity of song.
 The prefatory matter past,
 The tale or story comes at last.

A candle stuck in flaring state
 Within the nosse of French plate,
 Tow'ring aloft with smoaky light,
 The snuff and flame of wond'rous height,
 (For, virgin yet of amputation,
 No force had check'd its inclination)
 Sullen address'd with conscious pride,
 The dormant snuffers at his side:
 "Mean vulgar tools, whose envious aim
 "Strikes at the vitals of my flame,
 "Your rude assaults shall hurt no more,
 "See how my beams triumphant soar!
 "See how I gayly blaze alone,
 "With strength, with lustre all my own!"
 "Lustre, good Sir!" the snuffers cried,
 "Alas! how ignorant is pride!
 "Thy light, which wavers round the room,
 "Shews as the counterfeit of gloom;
 "Thy snuff, which idly tow'rs so high,
 "Will waste thy essence by and by,
 "Which, as I prize thy lustre dear,
 "I fain would lop, to make thee clear.
 "Boast not, old friend, thy random rays,
 "Thy wasting strength, and quiv'ring blaze;
 "You shine but as a beggar's link,
 "To burn away, and die in stink;
 "No merit waits unsteady light,
 "You must burn *true* as well as *bright*."

Poets like candles are all puffers,
 And *Critics* are the candle-snuffers.

An Account of Books published in 1764.

An historical and chronological deduction of the Origin of Commerce, from the earliest accounts to the present time, &c. In two volumes, folio. London.

A Full and judicious history of the rise and progress of commerce has been long desired, and indeed much wanted. Every thing, which has hitherto appeared upon that subject, has been either very imperfect, or very erroneous, or both: yet nothing can afford a more rational object of study and attention, for the uses either of speculative or active life. Trade is so much influenced by the manners of mankind, as well as so intimately connected with their policy and government, that it cannot fail of furnishing no less valuable lights for the history of the human mind in different ages and countries, than for advancing the riches and prosperity of nations. Mr. Anderson has undertaken a very great work, and what might have seemed too much for the labours of a single hand. The books and records compared by him are almost innumerable: the objects it comprehends are in a manner infinite. Every thing which concerns commerce in all its branches, and manufacture in all its articles, even to the minutest details in both; every thing which could be collect-

ed concerning corporations, concerning trading and banking societies; every thing which relates to public and private credit; to funds and stocks; whatever tends to illustrate the value of money and of provisions, and the price of labour; the comparative population at different periods; the origin of all improvements in arts of use or ornament, form the extensive materials of this curious and interesting work. It must be observed, however, that, though he runs over the whole history of commerce ancient and modern, yet he labours chiefly that of the commerce of Europe; and in Europe principally attaches himself to the affairs of Great-Britain. The author has arranged these materials, vast as they are, in a clear and satisfactory chronological order; and has interspersed them with many sensible reasonings and judicious reflections.

With regard to the style of this work, it is, as might be expected in a work of this kind, negligent. It has this defect; but it is the smallest such a work can have. Some few errors, too, in dates and facts, of which the author was himself conscious, may be observed; but ought to be overlooked as unavoidable in such a performance. He has finished the whole with an ample chronological index, which is at the same time a table of reference,

ference, and an abridgment of the work. This part will prove particularly satisfactory to the reader.

Extracts can give but an imperfect idea of works of this extent. We shall, however, insert two; the first, his account of the genius and manners of the 14th century; the second, an account of the application of the magnet to navigation.

“ Character of the fourteenth Century.”

The character of this fourteenth century is of much greater importance to mankind than any, or perhaps than all, the preceding ones, considered in a purely mercantile sense. Great improvements are effected in naval commerce throughout the greatest part of Europe, and in the dimensions of shipping, more especially in Italy, Spain, the Hanse towns, and the Netherlands, whereby gradual approaches were making towards constituting the remarkable difference which has since so eminently appeared between nations, in proportion to their greater or lesser cultivation of foreign commerce, and of manufactures, fisheries, mines, and other commercial improvements. Yet Mr. Rymer, in the dedication to the late queen Anne of his *Iild Tome of the Fœdera*, tells her very truly, “ that these were times of “ great struggle and disorder all “ Europe over, and the darkest “ period of times.” And the supposed royal author of the memoirs of the house of Brandenburg speaks much to the same effect, viz. “ That ignorance was at its “ highest pitch in this and the

“ next succeeding century.” The lands of England, it is true, still continued to be extremely cheap, of which some very memorable instances are exhibited, chiefly owing to there being as yet but very few purchasers: yet the rate of living, and the prices of most of the necessaries of life, were considerably risen since the beginning of the preceding century. The great king Edward III. of England, attentively observing the vast benefits accruing to the Netherlands from their extensive woollen manufacture, the main material whereof they owed chiefly, if not solely, to his own kingdom; viewing also the beauty, populousness, opulence, and strength of their cities, the neatness and wealth even of their villages, whilst those of this kingdom were mostly poor, ill-built, small, and thin of people; and that the province of Flanders in particular was thereby become so opulent and potent, as to be a dangerous neighbour to England, more especially when siding with France; such considerations were more than sufficient to determine him to attempt the removal of every obstacle for attaining the like benefits to himself and his people.

Had this prince solely confined himself to the pursuit of the woollen manufacture, that great point would have been sooner and more effectually accomplished; but his earnest pursuit of the conquest of France occasioned no small suspicion of the other point, by its depriving his kingdom of much wealth and people. Yet although that towering project proved abortive, and that, in the end, he lived long enough to see all his

large conquests in France ravished from him, the single town of Calais only excepted [and a truly happy sight it was, or ought to have been, for the English nation, had they then as clearly perceived, as we at present do, the infinite mischief which would have been the inevitable consequence of his said success]; he, however, also lived long enough to see his said more salutary scheme of the woollen manufacture generally established throughout England, though since gradually much improved. He also enacted more and better laws for the advancement of commerce than all his predecessors had done. The silver coins of the two sister-nations of England and Scotland having been the same in weight, value, figure, and denomination, from time immemorial, down to the middle of this century, thereby they mutually and freely circulated in both kingdoms to that period; but the Scots beginning now first to lessen the intrinsic value of theirs, still preserving the old denominations, about that period England was at length obliged totally to prohibit their passing in payment. The livre, or pound of France, which originally weighed twelve ounces of silver, or a pound of troy, was, in this century, sunk to the sixth part of that weight, or to the sixth part of a pound sterling. Although gold coins had been early in use among the ancient Asiatics, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, yet from the overthrow of the western Roman empire, until near the close of the last, or the beginning of this XIVth century, we do not find any gold coins in use, even in the free states of Italy,

who, doubtless, had them the first of any part of Europe west of the Greek empire.—In England, the first gold coins were not struck till the year 1344.—In the same country, foreign merchants were still hardly and impolitically treated by means of the exclusive charters granted to London and other cities and towns.—The ports of the eastern coast of England had, by this time, fallen into a considerable trade to and with the Hanse-towns of Germany, and also to those of Prussia and Livonia, then the farthest voyages made by Englishmen, even long before England resorted to the countries within the Mediterranean sea.—Next after London, the city of Bristol made the greatest figure of any in England in commerce and shipping in all this century, and probably long before, as well as it has done ever since, as partly appears from their making the highest loans of money to the crown of any place, London excepted. This century, moreover, furnishes us with the most distinct account of the full quota of the Cinque-ports maritime service to the crown in time of war.—Many improvements are made in Europe; and particularly in England, clocks are first brought thither; law-pleadings first ordained to be in the English language, &c. The islands of the Madeira, and of the Canaries, are fully discovered and settled, both which are soon after planted with vines and sugar-canes; and the said islands have been extremely assisting to the commerce of the several trading nations of Europe, both by their product and their commodious situation. So that did we think ourselves obliged to
after-

ascertain precisely a period to the times called the middle ages, we might, possibly, with some reason, fix on the latter end of the reign of the great King Edward III.—Scotland, we find, had commerce with the Netherlands from the very commencement of this century, and probably much farther back.—The invention of the gilling and pickling of herrings, at the close of this century, as still in use, has proved a great addition to the commerce of Europe, and more particularly to the Hollanders; and the inundation of the Texel happening very near that period, afforded means for Amsterdam to take its first great commercial flight, by engrossing the greatest part of the fishing, and of the Baltic trades.—Although the Hanse-towns still enjoyed, throughout all this century, a great and flourishing commerce, yet the Netherlands cities, and most especially the great and opulent city of Bruges, began now to eclipse the Hanseatic ones both in commerce and opulence.—In Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, their famous queen Margaret is said to have made such regulations, as laid the foundations for future commerce: it was in her reign that we first meet with the mention in history of the copper-mines of Sweden; which last-named country came very late into any degree of foreign commerce.—Spain (by which word historians, in those times, most generally meant the monarchy of Castile, and yet at other times the whole country, comprehending both modern Spain and Portugal) had some foreign commerce carried on by large ships, called carricks, long before France had any such,

or indeed any other nation of the west, but the free cities of Italy and the Hanse-towns. In conclusion, this century made sundry great improvements in commerce, manufactures, and navigation, and has therefore required more room in our work than any one preceding century. We may also remark, that, during the contests in the course of this century between the anti-popes, as also in the struggles between the pretenders to the imperial throne, Italy was in a continual flame with civil broils, so that in sundry parts thereof (according to Petavius and others) many princes and great men assumed to themselves the rule and government of cities; many of whom pope Benedict XII. legitimated as princes of the same, that they might be ready and willing to help and defend him against Lewis of Bavaria the emperor, elected by one party of the German princes, he favouring the pretensions of Frederick of Austria to the imperial throne.”

The history of the first discovery of the polarity of the magnet, and its application to navigation, is curious.

“Most authors fix on the year 1302 for the date of the incomparable invention or discovery of the mariners compass, or magnetic needle, for the direction of ships at sea. The inventor was Flavio de Gioia, a native of Amalphi, an ancient commercial city of the kingdom of Naples; in commemoration whereof, this verse of one Anthony of Palermo is recorded by the Neapolitan historians, viz.

“*Prima dedit Nautus usum Magnetis Amalphis.*”

That

That is to say, *That as the poles of the magnet or loadstone answered to the poles of the world, it could also communicate that wonderful property to an iron needle, placed on a chart, marking the points of the world.*

The power of the magnet to attract iron was known to the ancients, and is mentioned by Plato, Aristotle, and Pliny; but its directive power, *to cause a piece of iron touched with it to point north and south*, is undoubtedly of a later date.

Goropius (says Morisotus) will have the inventors of this wonderful [*Pixis nautica*] compass to be either Danes or Germans, because the thirty-two points on it are written and pronounced in the Dutch or Teutonic language, by all nations using the sea; though this may, perhaps, only prove the improvement of the compass by the Teutonics. For all are agreed; that at the first there were only the *four cardinal points*, or at most (as others) eight points named on the compass, which eight winds had been so named by Charlemain, as has been observed under the year 790; and that emperor still using the Teutonic tongue (though with some alteration from its original dialect) from thence those of Bruges might naturally continue the other twenty-four points in the same language, as the bringing them to thirty-two points is usually ascribed (says Verstegan, &c.) to the people of Bruges in Flanders, where the Teutonic dialect is still in use. Others (continues Morisotus) ascribe the discovery of the compass to Marco Polo of Venice, who,

on his return from China about the year 1260, communicated that secret to the Italians. Others have formerly thought, that what is called *Verforia* by Plautus was the magnetic needle, and was consequently known to the ancients; but the learned seem now agreed, that this *Verforia* was nothing more than a rope which turned the sail about.

There are again two other Frenchmen, viz. Mezeray and Monsr. Huet (Bishop of Avranches) who will only allow Flavio the honour of having rendered the compass more perfect and practicable; and say, it must needs be more ancient, as they find mention of it, or of something resembling it, in sundry authors prior to this period. Bishop Huet seems positive, that it was in use by the French pilots above forty years before Marco Polo's time, as appears (says he) from some verses of Guyot de Provins, a French poet, mentioned by Fauchet, who lived about the year 1200. Notwithstanding all which, the general consent of authors gives it for this same Flavio of Amphali, who, according to Abraham Ortelius and others, used it only for the eight principal winds or points, till, as above, it was, by those of Bruges, improved to thirty-two points. Neither, indeed, does this excellent invention seem to have been generally known and used, even long after Flavio's time, as appears too plainly from the Portuguese creeping along the shores, even so late as their first discoveries on the west coasts of Africa in the fifteenth century: yet the Portuguese ought to have the honour
and

and justice done them to acknowledge, that the use of the astrolabe, the tables of declination, with other astronomical and arithmetical rules, applicable to navigation, were their inventions; and it is highly probable too, that the sea-charts, made by Columbus's brother in England, were their invention also. It is true, the English pretend not to the invention of the compass, as several other nations have done, yet they are said to be the inventors of the most convenient method of suspending the box which contains the magnetic needle, so as to keep it always horizontal. The variation of the needle, or its declination from the true north point, was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, anno 1500. And the inclination, or dipping of that needle, when hung so as to play vertically to a point beneath the horizon, was first discovered by Robert Norman, an Englishman, anno 1565, as have been many other lesser improvements in the instruments for navigation by our nation; neither ought we by any means to forget the lord Napier's discovery of logarithms, so useful in our arithmetical operations for nautical as well as other purposes. Lastly, the *variation of the variation*, or the different declination of that needle at different times, in the same place, was first discovered by our countryman Gellibrand, about the year 1634; though some will have Gassendus to have before discovered it. So much seemed necessary to be said on this incomparable invention, and on some of the other nautical improvements, which were, as one may

say, only necessary consequences of its invention. Endless are the encomiums justly bestowed by all maritime nations on this excellent instrument, the *mariners compass*, for the benefit of navigation and commerce.

It set every maritime nation upon improvements or discoveries, whereby things, utterly unknown before, were continually adding to the more perfect accomplishment of it. Nothing can make the contrast stronger, than to view and compare the timorous coasting of the old navigators, who seldom durst venture out of sight of the land (and generally made a voyage last three years, which now can be *much more safely* performed in three months) with the exactness which, in these times, a ship (for instance) can sail from the Lizard point in Cornwall, and directly make or arrive at one of the small isles of the Azores, in the Atlantic ocean, far distant from any land; and though in the darkest weather, deprived of the comfort and use of the heavenly luminaries, and of every other mark from heaven, earth, or sea, for his guide, the modern navigator securely sails on, generally knowing exactly enough by his reckoning where he is, and how far distant from his intended port.

By the help of this noble instrument it was that the Spaniards made their discoveries of a new western world, the Portuguese the way by sea to India and China, and the English and Dutch the several useful discoveries towards the north pole; all which, but for the compass, would have probably still remained unknown; and all the wealth acquired from
such

such discoveries, and, probably too, most of the knowledge acquired in consequence thereof, had likewise never been discovered but for it."

A history of the military Transactions of the British nation in Indostan, from the year 1745. To which is prefixed a dissertation on the establishments made by Mahomedan conquerors in Indostan. One Volume Quarto. London.

THE manners and characters of the various people who inhabit the great empire of Indostan, the peculiarities of their religion and their policy, and the astonishing events which have lately happened in that part of the world, have rendered the history of the wars in India an object of general curiosity. The great interest we have still in that empire, always as a trading, lately as a conquering people, will make a proper narrative of our former proceedings there a matter of the most useful instruction. The author of this work has gratified this curiosity, and communicated this instruction. No historian seems to have been more perfectly informed of the subject on which he has undertaken to write; and very few have possessed more fully the talent of impressing it in the clearest and most vivid manner on the imagination and understanding of his reader. In this work the events are fully prepared; the characters strongly delineated; and the situations well described. It is no uncommon thing to find in ordinary writers more of the confusion than of

the life and spirit of the fight in their descriptions of an engagement. But nothing can be more clear and satisfactory than the whole detail of military transactions which we find in this writer. Whether the march or the retreat, the attack or the defence, the encampment or the battle, every thing is drawn with accuracy and precision, in great detail, but without any thing tedious. In these particulars, Polybius will be scarcely thought to exceed him.

It must be observed, likewise, to his honour, that there reigns through the whole work an air of disinterestedness, and of freedom from all passion and prejudice, public or private. The Frenchman, who acts gallantly or wisely, finds as much justice done to his actions and his conduct, as any of the author's countrymen. The same impartiality seems to have been observed with regard to all personal connections. This volume does not carry the war further than 1755. It were to be wished that the author may finish what he has begun in so promising a manner.

It is difficult to extract from this work; but in order to give the reader an idea of the author's style of narrative, we present him with the following.

"Of this great dominion (thirty nabobships) Murzafa-jing (Nazir-jing, his predecessor, having been murdered by a conspiracy of the nobles supported by the French) from a prisoner in irons and condemned to death, saw himself in the revolution of a few hours almost absolute lord, and with the prospect of maintaining possession of it.

On

On the 15th of December, at night, he came to the gates with a numerous and splendid attendance, amongst which were most of the principal lords of his court; he was received by Mr. Dupleix and Chunda-saheb in a tent without the city; and discovered great emotions of joy in this interview. It was intended, in deference to his rank, that he should have entered the town on his elephant; but the animal was too large to pass under the beam to which the draw-bridge was suspended; whereupon he politely desired to go in the same palankin with Mr. Dupleix to the palace: here they had a private conference, in which he explained the difficulties he lay under from the pretensions of the Pitān nabobs, and afterwards retired to the house appointed for his reception, where he was expected with impatience by his mother, his wife, and his son.

The next day the three Pitān nabobs came into the town, and desired Mr. Dupleix to determine what rewards they should receive for the services they had rendered; they demanded, that the arrears of tribute, which they had not paid for three years, should be remitted; that the countries which they governed, together with several augmentations of territory they now demanded, should in future be exempted from tribute to the Mogul government; and that one half of the riches found in Nazir-jing's treasury should be delivered to them.

It was known that all the lords of Murzafa-jing's court waited to measure their demands by the

concessions which he should make to the Pitān Nabobs; if those obtained all they asked, the whole of his dominion would scarcely suffice to satisfy the other claimants in the same proportion; and, on the other hand, if they were not satisfied, it was much to be apprehended that they would revolt; Mr. Dupleix therefore postponed all other considerations to this important discussion, and conferred with the Pitāns for several days successively. He acknowledged the great obligations Murzafa-jing lay under to them for their conduct in the revolution: but insisted that he himself had contributed as much to it as they, and was therefore intitled to as great rewards; and that if such concessions were extorted, the soubah would no longer be able to maintain the dignity he had acquired. Intending therefore to set the example of moderation, he, in the last conference, told them, that he should relinquish his own pretensions to any share of the treasures, or to any other advantages which might distress the affairs of Murzafa-jing. The Pitāns finding him determined to support the cause of that prince at all events, agreed amongst themselves to appear satisfied with the terms he prescribed: these were, that the governments should be augmented by some districts much less than those they demanded; that their private revenues should be increased by the addition of some lands belonging to the crown given to them in farm at low rates; and that the half of the money found in Nazir-jing's treasury should be divided

vided amongst them; but the jewels were reserved to Murzafajing.

This agreement was signed by the nabobs, who likewise took on the Alcoran an oath of allegiance to the soubah; declaring at the same time that Nizam-al-muluck himself had never been able to obtain from them this mark of submission; and he on his part swore to protect them whilst they remained faithful.

All dissensions being now in appearance reconciled, feasts and entertainments ensued, in which Mr. Dupleix spared no expence to raise in his guests a high opinion of the grandeur of his nation by the splendour with which he affected to represent his monarch. Amidst these rejoicings was performed the ceremony of installing the soubah in the throne of the Decan. It was very pompous; and Mr. Dupleix appeared, next to the soubah, the principal actor in it; for in the dress of a Mahomedan lord of Indostan, with which the prince himself had clothed him, he was the first who paid homage; after which he was declared governor for the Mogul of all the countries lying to the south of the river Krishna; that is, of a territory little less than France itself; he likewise received the title of Munsub, or commander of 7000 horse, with the permission of placing amongst his ensigns that of the fish; neither of which distinctions is ever granted excepting to persons of the first note in the empire. It was ordered, that no money should be cur-

rent in the Carnatic, but such as was coined at Pondicherry; and that the Mogul's revenues from all the countries of which Mr. Dupleix was now appointed vicegerent should be remitted to him, who was to account for them to the soubah; and Chundafahb was declared nabob of Arcot and its dependencies, under the authority of Mr. Dupleix. All the Mogul and Indian lords paid homage and made presents; pensions, titles of honour, and governments, were bestowed on those who had assisted in the revolution, or had otherwise merited favour; but he granted none of these to any, but such as presented requests signed by the hand of Mr. Dupleix.

The immediate advantages arising to the French East-India company by these concessions, were the possession of a territory near Pondicherry, which produced annually 96,000 rupees; of that near Karical in the kingdom of Tanjore, valued at 106,000; and the city of Masulipatnam with its dependencies, of which the yearly income amounted to 144,000 rupees; in all, a revenue of 38,000 pounds sterling, according to the accounts published by the French, which there is reason to believe are greatly extenuated. But these advantages were small in comparison of those which Mr. Dupleix expected to obtain from the extensive authority with which he was now invested; and although not one of these grants could, according to the constitution of the Mogul empire, be of any validity, unless confirmed by the emperor, he, without scruple, assumed

assumed them as lawful acquisitions; it is certain that imperfect as they were, they served greatly to raise the reputation of his importance in the Carnatic, where the soubah of the southern provinces is more respected than the great Mogul himself. Even Mahomed-ally appeared to be confounded by these concessions; and from Tritchanopoly, to which place he had escaped with great difficulty, impowered the Morratoe, Raja Janagi, to treat with Mr. Dupleix for the surrender of the city, and offered, as the French affirm with great confidence in more than one memoir, to relinquish his pretensions to the nabobship of Arcot, provided Murzafa-jing would give him some other government in the territory of Gol-kondah, and leave him in possession of his treasures, without demanding any account of his father An'war adean Khan's administration. Mr Dupleix agreed to these terms, and imagined that they would very soon be carried into execution; so that nothing now retarded the departure of Murzafa-jing to Gol-kondah and Aureng-abad, where his presence became every day more necessary. As the power of Mr. Dupleix depended on the preservation of this prince, whose government, in a country subject to such sudden revolutions, probably would not be free from commotions, he proposed that a body of French troops should accompany him until he was firmly established in the subahship; and from experience of the services they were capable of rendering, this offer was accepted without hesitation.

The treasures of Nazir-jing were computed at two millions sterling, and the jewels at 500,000 pounds; in the partition of this wealth, the private fortune of Mr. Dupleix was not forgot, notwithstanding the offer he had made in the conference with the Pitan nabobs to relinquish all pretensions to any private advantage by the revolution; for, besides many valuable jewels, it is said, that he received 200,000 pounds in money. Murzafa-jing gave 50,000 pounds to be divided among the officers and troops who had fought at the battle of Gingee, and paid 50,000 more into the treasury of the French company, for the expences they had incurred in the war. The long experience of Shanavaz Khan in the administration of the Decan rendering his knowledge necessary to the instruction of a new regency, he was invited by Murzafa-jing to enter into his service, and came from Chittaput and made his submission.

Mr. Dupleix and Murzafa-jing separated with professions of mutual gratitude and attachment, and the army left the neighbourhood of Pondicherry on the fourth of January; the French detachment was commanded by Mr. Buffy, and consisted of 300 Europeans and 2000 Seapoys, with ten field pieces. The march was continued without interruption until the latter end of the month, when they arrived in the territory of Cudapa, about sixty leagues from Pondicherry. There some straggling horsemen quarrelled with the inhabitants of a village, and, with the usual licentiousness

of the cavalry of Indostan, set fire not only to that but likewise to two or three other villages in the neighbourhood. The nabob of Cudapa, pretending to be greatly exasperated by this outrage, ordered a body of his troops to revenge it, by attacking the rear-guard of Murzafa-jing's division. A skirmish ensued, and the troops of Cudapa, overpowered by numbers, retreated to their main body. Their attack, whether by chance or design is uncertain, had been directed against that part of the army which escorted the women; so that this defiance was aggravated by the most flagrant affront that the dignity of an Indian prince could receive; for the persons of women of rank are deemed sacred, even in war. Murzafa-jing no sooner heard of this insult, than he ordered his whole army to halt, put himself at the head of a large body of troops, and prepared to march against the nabob of Cudapa. Mr. Buffy, who had been instructed to avoid if possible all occasions of committing hostilities in the route to Gol-kondah, interposed, and with much difficulty prevailed on him to suspend his resentment, until the nabob explained the reasons of his conduct. Messengers were sent both from Murzafa-jing and Mr. Buffy; to those of Murzafa-jing the nabob of Cudapa answered, that he waited for their master sword in hand; but to Mr. Buffy he sent word, that he was ready to make submissions to the soubah through his mediation. The difference of these answers stung this prince to the quick, and nothing could

now stop him from proceeding to take instant revenge. He told Mr. Buffy, who still attempted to reclaim him, that every Pitau in his army was a traitor born; and in a very few minutes the truth of his assertion was confirmed; for his spies brought intelligence, that the troops of all the three nabobs were drawn up together in battle array; that they were posted to defend a defile which lay in the route of the army, and that several posts leading to the defile were defended by cannon, which had been brought there some days before. These preparations left no doubt that the rebellion of the nabobs was premeditated; and indeed they had begun to concert it from the very hour that they had taken the oath of allegiance in Pondicherry. Murzafa-jing, in full march at the head of his cavalry, grew impatient of the slow pace of the French battalion, and hurried away to attack the rebels without their assistance. The Pitau nabobs had in their service many of their own countrymen, who, although much inferior in number, stood the shock with great intrepidity, and had even repulsed his troops before Mr. Buffy came up. The fire of the French artillery, after a severe slaughter, changed the fortune of the day, and obliged the Pitans to retreat; when Murzafa-jing, irritated by the repulse he had sustained, rallied his troops, and heedless of the remonstrances of Mr. Buffy, pursued the fugitives, and left once more the French battalion behind, who endeavoured to keep sight of him, but
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in vain. They soon after came up to some of his troops, who were cutting to pieces the body of the nabob of Savanore dead on the ground. The nabob of Cudapa had fled out of the field desperately wounded, and in pursuing him, Murzafa-jing came up with the nabob of Canoul, who finding he could not escape, turned with the handful of troops that surrounded him, and pushed on towards the elephant of his enemy. Exasperated by this defiance, the young prince made a sign to his troops to leave the person of the nabob to be attacked by himself. The two elephants were driven up close to each other, and Murzafa-jing had his sword uplifted to strike, when his antagonist thrust his javelin, which pierced his forehead with so much force that the point entered the brain; he fell back dead: a thousand arms were aimed at the nabob, who was in the same instant mortally wounded; and the troops, not satisfied with this atonement, fell with fury on those of the nabob, whom they soon overpowered, and cut to pieces. The French battalion was preparing to hail them returning from the field with acclamations of victory, when the news of Murzafa-jing's fate struck them with the deepest consternation. They immediately marched back to the camp, which they found in the utmost confusion; for large arrears of pay were due to the army; and it was to be apprehended that the soldiery would mutiny and plunder, and every general suspected all the others of sinister intentions.

But this disaster affected no interest more severely than that of the French; for by it were annihilated all the advantages which were gained by the murder of Nazir-jing; and Mr. Buffy was left without pretensions to interfere any further in the concerns of the Decan. This officer saw all the desperate consequences of his present situation, without losing his presence of mind; he assembled the generals and ministers, and found them as ready as himself to admit of any expedient by which the loss of their sovereign might be repaired: besides the son of Murzafa-jing, an infant, there were in the camp three brothers of Nazir-jing, whom that prince had brought into the Carnatic under strict confinement, to prevent their engaging in revolts during his absence; and after his death they were continued under the same restraint by Murzafa-jing. Mr. Buffy proposed, that the vacant dignity of Soubah should be conferred on the eldest of the brothers, by name Salabat-jing; and the generals, from a sense of the convulsions to which the reign of a minor would be exposed, readily acquiesced to the exclusion of Murzafa-jing's son, and unanimously approved of Mr. Buffy's advice. It was immediately carried into execution; the three princes were released from their confinement, and Salabat-jing was proclaimed soubah of the Decan, with the universal consent of the army. His elevation, and the signal catastrophe of this day, in which three of the conspirators of Nazir-jing's death fell in the battle fighting

against each other, were regarded by many as a retribution of the divine justice."

The advantage and necessity of the Christian Revelation, shewn from the state of religion in the ancient heathen world, especially with respect to the knowledge and worship of the one true God, a rule of moral duty, and a state of future rewards and punishments; to which is prefixed a preliminary discourse on Natural and Revealed Religion. In two volumes. By John Leland, D. D. author of the View of the Deistical Writers, &c. London.

THE world is already well acquainted with the labours of this ingenious and learned author in the cause of religion, by his *View of the Deistical Writers*, and his masterly refutation of their various systems of infidelity. We are, therefore, prepared to receive favourably any other work of the same writer upon the same subject, in which he is so perfectly, and, with so much ability, conversant. The great drift of this book is to attack deists in one of their principal strong-holds, the sufficiency of natural reason for the purposes of rational religion, and speculative as well as practical morality. Agreeably to this intention the author proposes "to represent the state of religion in the gentile world, with respect to that which lies at the foundation of all religion, the knowledge and worship of the one true God, in opposition to idolatry and polytheism.

2dly, To consider what notions they had of moral duty, taken in its just extent; a thing of the highest importance to mankind. 3dly, To take a view of the notions which obtained among them of a future state of rewards and punishments; which is also a point of vast consequence to the cause of religion and virtue in the world. Under these several heads, he does not pretend to argue from speculative hypotheses concerning the supposed powers of human nature; or to affirm that it is not possible for any man, by the mere force of his own reason, to attain to any rational persuasion of these things; but proceeds upon fact and experience, which will help us to form the truest judgment in this matter, and will shew us what we are to expect from human reason, if left merely to its own unassisted force, in the present state of mankind."

This plan he has executed with great force of reasoning and great perspicuity of style; with a vast compass of erudition; and with that candour and ingenuousness, with that mild and amiable temper, which always ought to accompany christian controversy; and must contribute so highly to the efficacy of those powerful arguments, which are brought to support our religion. On the whole we know no one performance so full and satisfactory on this subject; nor any in which the author has so fully accomplished what he proposes. Every thing is not new; though there is much that is so. Perhaps the author did wisely in avoiding that affectation; but then every thing

is well enforced, and nothing is omitted.

Having laid down the plan of the work from the author, all that remains is to give some specimen of his manner of writing. We cannot select a more curious part than his enquiry into the heathen mysteries, which has been so large a subject of critical discussion, and in which he differs from the system of another very learned author.

“ Here it is proper to take notice of an argument which the celebrated author of the Divine Legation seems to regard as a plain proof, that the mysteries were designed to detect and overthrow the error of the vulgar polytheism. He observes, that what the legislators and civil magistrates had principally in view in instituting and conducting the mysteries, was the promoting the practice of virtue among the people for the good of the society. “ But there was one insuperable “ obstacle to it, the vicious ex- “ amples of their gods.—It was “ therefore necessary to remedy “ this evil, which they did by “ striking at the root of it. The “ mystagogue taught the initiated, that Jupiter, Mercury, Venus, Mars, and the whole rabble of licentious deities, were “ indeed only dead mortals, subject in life to the same passions “ and vices with themselves.— “ The fabulous gods being thus “ routed, the supreme cause of “ all things took their place.” &c.

I readily agree with this learned writer, that the ill effect of the vicious examples of the gods could not be effectually prevented, but by overturning the vulgar polytheism, and discarding the popular deities. But the ancient heathens were of a different opinion. Some of them made no scruple of declaring their disapprobation of the vicious actions ascribed to their gods in the poetical fables; and yet it does not appear that they were for rejecting the deities themselves, to whom those actions were ascribed, or turning the people from the worship of them. As, by our author’s acknowledgment, they were only the poetical stories about the vicious actions of the gods, that, in their opinion, made polytheism hurtful to the state, they thought they might still maintain the established deities in the worship which was rendered to them according to the laws, and yet prevent the ill influence of those fables upon the people. To this purpose it was pretended, that those stories were not to be understood in the gross literal sense; and that they had a hidden meaning contained under them. Of this we have a specimen in the physical explication given by Varro of the story of Proserpine’s having been ravished by Pluto, which was one of the things represented in the Eleusinian mysteries*. This was undoubtedly a fundamental defect in their scheme. For whilst the poetical mytho-

* Apud August. De Civ. Dei. lib. vii. cap. 20. p. 136. Edit. Bened.

logy kept its place in the public religion and worship, and the stories and ancient traditions concerning the gods were held sacred among the people, no physical or allegorical interpretations, which were for the most part strained, could prevent the ill influence which the literal and obvious meaning would naturally have upon them. And for this reason among others it could scarce be expected, that the mysteries should have a good effect in rectifying the religion or morals of the people. They were by no means intended to abolish the public system of polytheism, and whilst that continued in force with which those fables were so closely interwoven, all attempts to defeat the bad effects of them were ineffectual and vain.

That the mysteries were not designed to overthrow the vulgar polytheism, may, I think, be fairly argued from this consideration, that the legislators and civil magistrates who first instituted the mysteries, and continued to have the chief direction of them, “had,” as our learned author observes, “the chief hand in the rise of the vulgar polytheism, and contrived that polytheism for the sake of the state,

“to keep the people in awe, and “under a greater veneration for “their laws*.” And could it be expected from such legislators and magistrates, that they, who, by his own acknowledgment, regarded not *truth* but *utility*||, should in good earnest attempt to draw the people off from that polytheism which they themselves had encouraged and established for the welfare of the state, and to keep the people under a greater veneration for the laws? After having said, that “the fabulous gods “were routed in the mysteries, “and that the initiated were “taught the doctrine of the “unity, the supreme cause of all “things,” he observes, that “these “were the truths, which, Varro “tells us, it was expedient for “the people to know, imagining “the error of the vulgar polytheism to be so inveterate, that “it was not to be expected without throwing the society into “convulsions†.” And any one that duly considers the maxims by which the ancient legislators and great men of the state governed themselves, will not readily believe that they were capable of forming a scheme, the tendency of which was, in their opinion, to throw the society

* Div. Leg. p. 156.

|| Speaking of the hidden doctrines of the schools of philosophy, and those of the mysteries of religion, he says, “They could not be the same, because “their ends were very different; the end of philosophy being only truth, the “end of religion only utility,” p. 151. And in a marginal note, *ibid.* it is said concerning the legislator and civil magistrate, that “whilst he was too “little solicitous about truth, he encouraged a polytheism destructive of society, “to regulate which, he, successfully, however, employed the mysteries.” With what success these mysteries were employed to regulate the vulgar polytheism, sufficiently appears from the observations which I have here made, and shall farther make upon this subject.

† Div. Leg. p. 155, 156.

into convulsions. If it be urged, that this was the very reason of their “ discovering the delusion of “ polytheism in the mylleries only “ to such of the initiated as were “ judged capable of the secret; and that “ this being supposed, the “ shaking foundations was to be “ done with all possible circum- “ spection, and under the most “ tremendous seal of secrecy * ; let us see whether this will account for the conduct of the legislators and magistrates, and render their scheme consistent. Upon this view of it, the expedient must stand thus; the legislators and magistrates, being convinced of the error and evil tendency of the vulgar polytheism, and yet being persuaded that it would be dangerous to the state to let this be generally known, contrived the mylleries, in which the initiated were to be instructed, that the deities commonly adored were no gods but only dead men, and that there is only one true God, the Creator and Governor of the world; and at the same time were to be laid under the strictest obligations to keep this to themselves, and not to divulge it. The language of the myllagogue to be initiated must therefore be supposed to have been to this purpose: I am now going to reveal to you a thing which is of the highest importance to you to know, because I look upon you to be persons fit to be intrusted with the secret; and that is, that those which are commonly esteemed

gods, and the worship of which makes up the public religion of the state, are not gods, nor ought to be regarded as such, that they are only dead men; that this rabble of licentious deities, Jupiter, Mercury, Venus, Mars, and others of the like sort, ought to be routed and discarded; and that you should acknowledge and adore the one only God, the Creator and Governor of the universe. But then you are bound by the most sacred oaths and engagements to keep what I now tell you an inviolable secret. To reveal it would expose you to the divine vengeance and to the capital punishments denounced by the laws against the betrayers of the mylleries; and it would be of the most pernicious consequence to spread this doctrine among the people. You must still go on to worship the popular gods as before, and must never attempt the least alteration in the established religion and worship.

This appears to me to be a strange inconsistent scheme. And it is hard to conceive what the legislator could propose by so odd and unaccountable a management. It was not the virtue of a few individuals, but of the society in general, that he must be supposed to have in view; and how could this end be answered by committing the secret, which is supposed to be of such importance to the morals of the people, only to a few of the initiated, who were at the same time brought under the most solemn

* He goes on to shew, that they were taught, that the gods would punish the revealers of the secret, and not only them, but the hearers of it too; besides which the state decreed capital punishments against the betrayers of the mylleries. Div. Leg. p. 180.

engagements not to discover it? And even as to those few to whom the secret was communicated, to what purpose would it be to instruct them in doctrines they were not to make use of? Or, what opinion could they have of the honesty of those that should instruct them to despise those popular deities, whom yet they would have them publicly adore? And who should discover to them the delusion of the vulgar polytheism, and the falsehood of the religion of their country, and yet urge it upon them as a duty to conform to it? If the mysteries were founded upon such a plan, it is not to be wondered at, that they had little effect on the minds and manners of men.

But I cannot bring myself to believe, that the legislators ever intended that there should be any thing in the mysteries which should expose the established religion and worship to contempt. If Virgil has, according to our author's most ingenious conjecture, made a genuine representation of the mysteries in the 6th book of his *Æneid*, "*non temnere divos*" — not to contemn the gods," was a lesson carefully inculcated there*. Instead of being intended to prejudice persons against the religion of their country, it is reasonable to believe that they were rather designed to strengthen their attachment to it; and by shews and striking representations, fitted to work upon the imaginations of the people, to impress them with a greater awe and vene-

ration for their deities. Accordingly it is observable, that those who were most zealous for the mysteries, were wont also to manifest the greatest zeal for the pagan religion; and they who were enemies to the pagan polytheism, as the primitive Christians universally were, had a very bad opinion of the mysteries.

That they were not intended to subvert by their secret doctrines the vulgar polytheism, may be farther argued from this consideration, that these mysteries were, according to this learned writer, "under the presidency of various gods, and were celebrated in their names, and to their honour." He names Isis and Osiris, Mythras, the mother of the gods, Bacchus, Venus, Jupiter, Ceres, and Proserpina, Castor and Pollux, Vulcan, and many others†. And he observes, that "each of the pagan gods had (besides the public and open) a secret worship paid unto him; to which none were admitted but those who had been selected by preparatory ceremonies, called *initiations*. This secret worship was termed the mysteries. But though every god had, besides his open worship, the secret likewise, yet this latter did not every where attend the former, but only there where he was the patron god, or in principal esteem‡." I think it hence follows, that there was only this difference between the public worship of those gods, and that rendered to them in the mysteries,

* It was one of the laws of Charondas, as Stobæus informs us, "Let the contempt of the gods be reckoned amongst the greatest crimes." Stob. *serm.* 42.

† Div. Leg. p. 138.

‡ Ibid. p. 137.

that the latter was attended with some peculiar circumstances, and performed in a more solemn manner, not by all promiscuously, but by those who by a particular initiation were prepared for it. The mysteries therefore were not designed to discard the worship of those deities, but to add a greater solemnity to it. And particularly they were intended for the honour of the patron deity, and were celebrated in places where he "was had in principal esteem." But how could it be said, that in the mysteries the secret worship of those deities was celebrated, if the design of the secret doctrine of those mysteries was to shew that they were no gods, and that no worship was due to them at all? And indeed, if the people had the least suspicion that this was the design of the secret doctrine taught in the mysteries, far from regarding them with so profound a veneration, they would have had them in abhorrence*. The Athenians, who expelled Anaxagoras, and put Socrates to death, for shewing, as they supposed, a disrespect to the religion and gods of their country, would never have endured mysteries in which the initiated were taught the error of polytheism, and whose ἀπορρητα overthrow the worship

of the gods commonly adored, and even of those to whose honour the mysteries were celebrated. It was for seeming in a drunken frolic to make a mock of the holy mysteries, and for offending the goddesses Ceres and Proserpina, to whom they were consecrated, that Alcibiades had the judgment of death passed upon him, and which would certainly have been inflicted, if he had not saved himself by flight. The rage the people of Athens were put into by this, and by the breaking the images of Mercury, which happened at the same time, and the numbers that were put to death on the account of it, shew how very zealous they were for the honour of their gods, and that they thought it an execrable impiety and prophaneness to do any thing which tended to cast contempt on the popular deities, on their images and sacred rites. A particular account of this may be seen in Plutarch's life of Alcibiades.

To all this may be added an argument from fact and experience, which seems to me to be of great force, and that is, that though the mysteries were generally celebrated in almost all the heathen nations, and especially throughout the whole Roman empire, no effect of them appears in turning

* Every citizen of Athens was bound by oath to defend and conform to the religion of his country. This oath was in the name of the gods, and concluded thus: I swear by these following deities, the Agrauli, Enyalis, Mars, Jupiter, the Earth, and Diana. See Potter's Greek Antiquities, vol. i. p. 141, 142. And to have taught them, though in the most secret way, that the gods they had sworn by were no gods, would have been looked upon as an attempt to subvert the commonwealth at the foundation, and to dissolve the sanction and obligatory force of those oaths, which were thought to be the most powerful bands of the public safety and security.

any of the people from their polytheism and idolatry. He talks indeed, in a passage cited above, of the legislator's having "successfully employed" the mysteries for regulating the vulgar polytheism. But how is this proved? can any instances be produced of persons that were converted from the public idolatry and polytheism by the mysteries? notwithstanding this boasted expedient it still kept its ground, and made a continual progress among the gentiles. The argument will receive an additional strength and force, if applied to the case of the Athenians. Athens was the principal seat of the Eleusinian, which were esteemed the most sacred and venerable of all the mysteries. There they were thought to be best understood, and to be celebrated in their greatest purity, and in the most religious and solemn manner. All the Athenians in general were initiated. It might therefore have been expected, that if the design of the mysteries had been such as is represented, it would have inspired some of them with a secret contempt of their deities, and of the common polytheism: and that this, in time and by degrees, would have wrought a remarkable change among them. But the contrary is manifest from their whole history. They seem rather to have been more and more devoted to their idolatries and superstitions. Nor had their polytheism ever been at a greater height than at the time of our Saviour's appearing."

An Essay on Painting, written originally in Italian by count Algarotti, gentleman of the bed chamber to his Prussian majesty, F.R.S. &c.

IT has been observed, that the science of criticism is not perfected, until the arts, about which it is conversant, are upon the decline. From their ashes a new object arises, which is capable of furnishing a very agreeable and very useful entertainment to the mind. If criticism does not tend to form new masters, and execute new works of genius, it enables us to go over the old ones with a much higher and a much more rational pleasure.

The author of the work before us is of that country in which painting, one of the finest of these arts, has been carried the nearest to perfection. It is to be hoped that this art has rather changed its residence, than totally abandoned the world; and that having declined in those fine climates, where it had originally its birth, it is coming to fix, with empire, commerce, and philosophy, in a more northern region. The author seems to be of that opinion, by addressing himself to a patriotic and respectable body in this kingdom.

His work, which is elegant and judicious, and which is full without being at all loaded, takes in the whole circle of the art, and begins, as Quintilian's institution of an orator, by treating on the education which is necessary for a painter; from whence he proceeds to anatomy, perspective, symmetry, colouring, and the rest of those parts which combine to form a perfect

perfect artist, and a correct judge. The style of Algarotti is elegant, clear, lively, and pointed; and we are not surprized, that the author, who has been capable of uniting the graces with the severe philosophy of Newton, should be able to support a dissertation on this polite art with taste and elegance.

It is this taste and elegance which forms the principal merit of the work before us, which is indeed not as profound as it is ingenious. However, although the author does not afford to a mind conversant in the matter a great many new ideas, his work will serve as a very good introduction to this species of criticism for those who are beginning to form a taste for painting, as it takes in (however lightly) the whole extent of the art, and directs to the most proper methods of acquiring a more exact and enlarged knowledge.

We shall present the reader, as a specimen of his manner, with that chapter in which he treats of the education of a painter; and then with the tenth chapter on invention, which is written with great sense and elegance.

Chap. I. Of the first education of a painter.

It would be a madness to place a boy, who, after repeated trials, hath discovered a natural genius for painting, in the usual track of study, and send him, with the

common herd of children, to the Latin school. Instead of Latin, he should be made to learn thoroughly the rudiments of his own tongue; and instead of Cicero's epistles, he should be made to read Borghini, Baldinucci, Vasari. This method would be attended with two advantages; one, that of rendering him master of his mother tongue, and thereby freeing him from the disagreeable necessity under which many very celebrated painters have laboured, of having recourse to the pen of others, even to write their letters; the other, that of enriching his mind, at the same time, with several branches of knowledge useful to one of his profession. Besides, the frequent mention made in these books of the great esteem in which painting has been held by men in the highest spheres of life, by the masters of the world, and of the great honours and rewards conferred by them, in every age, on the professors of that art, could not but prove a most powerful incentive to the zeal and diligence of a young painter.

It is not a matter of so little importance as some are, perhaps, apt to imagine, upon what drawings a pupil is first put to exercise his talents. Let the first profiles, the first hands, the first feet, given him to copy, be of the best masters, so as to bring his eye and his hand early acquainted with the most elegant forms, and the most beautiful proportions*. A youth, employed in copying the work

* Stultissimum credo ad imitandum non optima quæque proponere. Plin. lib. I. epist. v.

work of a middling painter, in order to proceed afterwards to something of Raphael's, having said in the hearing of a master, that he did it in order to bring his hand in; the master as sensible as wittily replied, "Say rather, to "put it out." A painter, who has early acquired a fine stile, finds it an easy matter to give dignity to the meanest features, while even the works of a Praxiteles or a Glycon are sure to suffer in the hands of another. A vessel will ever retain the scent, which it has first contracted.

It would be proper also to make the pupil copy some fine heads from the Greek and Roman medals, not so much for the reasons just now laid down, as to make him acquainted, if I may use the expression, with those personages, which in time he may have occasion to introduce into his pieces; and, above all, to improve him early in the art of copying from relief. Hence he will learn the rationale of light and shade, and the nature of that *chiara oscura*, by which it is, properly speaking, that the various forms of things are distinguished. To this it is owing, that a boy will profit more by drawing after things in relief, though but meanly executed, than by copying the most excellent drawings. But, whatever he does, care should be taken to make him

do it with delight, and finish it in the most accurate manner. Nothing in the world is so necessary as diligence, especially at the first entrance of any study. Nor must he ever expect to have the compasses in his eye, who has not first had them for a long time in his hand.

Chap. X. Of Invention.

As the operations of a general should, all, ultimately tend to battle and conquest, so should all the thoughts of a painter to perfect invention. Now, the studies which I have been hitherto recommending, will prove so many wings by which he may raise himself, as it were, from the ground, and soar on high, when desirous of trying his strength this way, and producing something from his own fund. Invention is the finding out probable things, not only such as are adapted to the subject in hand, but such, besides, as by their sublimity and beauty are most capable of exciting suitable sentiments in the spectator, and of making him, when they happen to be well executed, fancy that it is the subject itself in its greatest perfection, and not a mere representation of it, that he has before him. I do not say true things, but probable things; because probability or verisimilitude

Et naturâ tenacissimi sumus eorum, quæ rudibus annis percepimus, ut sapor, quo nova inbuas, durat, nec lanarum colores, quibus simplex ille candor mutatus est, elui possunt, & hæc ipsa magis pertinaciter hærent, quæ deteriora sunt. Nam bona facile mutantur in pejus: nunc quando in bonum verteris vitia? Quintil. Instit. Orat. lib. I. cap. i.

Frangas citius quam corrigas quæ in pravum induruerunt. Idem, ibid. cap. iii.

is, in fact, the truth of those arts, which have the fancy for their object *. It is, indeed, the business and duty of both naturalists and historians to draw objects as they find them, and represent them with all those imperfections and blemishes, to which, as individuals, they are subject. But an ideal painter, and such alone is a true painter, resembles the poet; instead of copying he imitates; that is, he works with his fancy, and represents objects endued with all that perfection which belongs to the species, and may be conceived in the archetype. It is all nature, says an English poet, speaking of poetry: and the same may be said of painting, but it is nature methodized and made perfect †. Inasmuch, that the circumstances of the action, exalted and sublimed to the highest degree of beauty and boldness they are susceptible of, may, though possible, have never happened, exactly such as the painter fancies, and thinks proper to represent them. Thus, the piety of Æneas, and the anger of Achilles, are things so perfect in their kind, as to be merely probable. And it is for this reason that poetry, which is only another word for invention, is more philosophical,

more instructive, and more entertaining than history ‡.

Here it is proper to observe, what great advantages the ancient had over the modern painters. The history of the times they lived in, fraught with great and glorious events, was to them a rich mine of the most noble subjects, which, besides, often derived no small sublimity and pathos from the mythology upon which their religion was founded. So far were their gods from being immaterial, and placed at an infinite distance above their worshippers; so far was their religion from recommending humility, penance, and self-denial; that, on the contrary, it appeared calculated merely to flatter the senses, inflame the passions, and poison the fancy. By making the gods partake of our nature, and subjecting them to the same passions, it gave man hopes of being able to mix with those, who, though greatly above him, resembled him, notwithstanding, in so many respects. Besides, these deities of theirs were in a manner visible, and to be met at every step. The sea was crowded with Tritons and Nereids, the rivers with Nais, and the mountains with Dryads. The woods swarmed with Fauns and Nymphs,

* Judgment of Hercules, Introduction.

† 'Tis nature all, but nature methodiz'd.
Essay on Criticism.

‡ Διὸ καὶ φιλοσοφώτερον καὶ σπουδαιότερον ποίησις ἱστορίας ἐστίν, ἥ μὲν γὰρ ποίησις μᾶλλον τὰ καθήκοντα, ἢ δὲ ἱστορία τὰ καθ' ἑκαστον λέγει.

De la foi d'un Chretien les mysteres terribles
D'ornemens egayez ne sont point susceptibles :
L'Evangile a l'esprit n'offre de tous cotés,
Que penitence a faire, & tourments meritez.

Desperaux, Art. Poet. Chant. III.

who,

who, in these obscure retreats, sought an asylum for their stolen embraces. The most potent empires, the most noble families, the most celebrated heroes, all derived their pedigree from their greater divinities. Nay, gods interested themselves in all the concerns of mankind. Apollo, the god of long arrows, stood by the side of Hector in the fields of Troy, and inspired him with new strength and courage to batter down the walls, and burn the ships of the Greeks: these, on the other hand, were led on to the fight and animated by Minerva, preceded by Terror, and followed by Death. Jove nods, his divine locks shake on his immortal head; Olympus trembles. With that countenance which allays the tempest, and restores serenity to the heavens, he gathers kisses from the mouth of Venus, the delight of gods and

of men. Among the ancients every thing sported with the fancy; and in those works which depend entirely on the imagination, some of our greatest masters have thought they could not do better than borrow from the pagans, if I may be allowed to say it, their pictures of Tartarus, in order to render their own drawings of hell more striking and picturesque.

After all, there have not been wanting able inventors in point of painting among the moderns. Michael Angelo, notwithstanding the depth and boldness of his own fancy, is not ashamed, in some of his compositions, to *dantize**; as Phidias and Apelles may be said formerly to have *homerized*†. Raphael too, tutored by the Greeks, has found means, like Virgil, to extract the quintessence of truth; has seasoned his works

* Concerning this we have a singular anecdote in the annotations with which Monsignor Bottari, to whom the polite arts are so much indebted, has illustrated the life of Michael Angelo. It is as follows: "We may see how much he studied Dante by a copy of this author (the first edition, with the comment of Landino) in his possession. On the margins, which were left very broad, Bonarotti had drawn with a pen every thing contained in the poems of Dante, and among the rest, an infinite number of the most excellent naked figures, in the most striking attitudes. This book got into the hands of Antonio Montauti of Florence, an intimate friend of the celebrated Abbatte Antonio Maria Salvini, as appears from many letters written by the latter to the former, and printed in the collection of the Florentine pieces in prose. Montauti was by profession a statuary, and a very able one; and set the greatest esteem upon this volume. But having ordered, on his departure from Florence to fill the place of surveyor to the church at St. Peter's at Rome, that all his marbles, bronzes, books, &c. should be sent after him by sea, under the care of one of his pupils, the vessel in which they were perished, unfortunately, in a storm, between Leghorn and Civita Vecchia, and along with her Montauti's pupil and all his effects, among the rest this inestimable volume, which alone would have done honour to the library of the greatest monarch."

† Phidias quoque Homeri versibus egregio dicto allusit. Simulacro enim Jovis Olympii perfecto, quo nullum præstantius aut admirabilius humanæ fabricatæ sunt manus; interrogatus ab amico, quonam mentem dirigens, vultum Jovis propemodum ex ipso cœlo petiit, eboris lineamentis esset amplexus; Illis se versibus, quasi magistris, usum respondi. Iliad 1.

with

with grace and nobleness, and exalted nature, in a manner above herself, by giving her an aspect more beautiful, more animating, and more sublime, than she is in reality accustomed to wear. In point of invention, Domenichino and Annibal Caracci come very near Raphael, especially in the pieces painted by them in Rome; nor does Poussin fall very short of him in some of his pictures, particularly in his *Esther-before-Ahasuerus*, and his *Death-of-Germanicus*, the richest jewel belonging to the Barberine family. Of all the painters who have acquired any extraordinary degree of reputation, no one studied less to set off his pieces by bold and beautiful circumstances, or was more a stranger to what is called poetical perfection, than Jacopo Bassano. Among the numberless instances I could produce of his carelessness this way, let it suffice to mention a *Preaching-of-St. Paul* painted by him in a place, near that of his birth, called *Marostega*. Instead of representing the apostle full of a divine enthusiasm, as Raphael has done, and thundering against the superstitions of the heathen in an assembly of Athenians; instead of exhibiting one of his auditors struck

to the quick, another persuaded, a third inflamed, he makes him hold forth, in a village of the Venetian state, to a parcel of poor peasants and their wives, who take not the least notice of him; the women especially, who seem to mind nothing but the country labours, in which he had found them employed. After all, this is an admirable piece, and would be a perfect one, had the painter not disgraced it so much by the poverty of his ideas.

With regard to invention, painting and poetry resemble each other so much in many other respects, besides that of combining in every action all the beauty and elegance it will admit, that they well deserve the name of sister arts. They differ, however, in one point, and that too of no small importance: it is this, the poet, in the representation of his story, relates what has already happened, prepares that which is still to come, and so proceeds, step by step, through all the circumstances of the action; and, to operate the greater effect on his hearers, avails himself of the succession of time and place. The painter, on the contrary, deprived of such helps, must be content to depend upon

Ἡ καὶ κυανέῃσιν ἐπ' ὀφρύσι νέεσσι Κρονίων,
 Ἀμβροσία δ' ἄρα χαῖται ἐπερρώσαντο ἀνακλῆ.
 Κρατὸς ἀπ' ἀθανάτῳ. μέγαν δ' ἐλέλιξεν Ὀλυμπον.

Valer. Max. lib. III. cap. vi. exemplo ext. 4.

Fecit Apelles & Neoptolemum ex equo pugnantes adversus Persas; Archelaum cum uxore & filia, Antigonom thoracatum cum equo incedentem. Peritiores artis præferunt omnibus ejus operibus eundem regem sedentem in equo: Dianam sacrificantium virginum choro mixtam; quibus vicisse Homeri versus videtur, id ipsum describentis.

C. Plin. Nat. Hist. lib. XXXV. cap. x.

one single moment. But what a moment! A moment in which he may conjure up, at once, to the eyes of his spectator a thousand objects; a moment teeming with the most beautiful circumstances that can attend the action; a moment equivalent to the successive labours of the poet. This the works of the greatest masters, which are every where to be seen, sufficiently evince; among others, the *St. Paul-at-Lystra*, by Raphael, whom it is impossible not to praise as often as this picture is mentioned. In order to give the spectator a thorough insight into the subject of this piece, the painter has placed, in the front of it, the cripple already restored to his limbs by the apostle, fired with gratitude towards his benefactor, and exciting his countrymen to yield him all kinds of honour. Round the cripple are some figures lifting up the skirts of his coat, in order to look at the legs reduced to their proper shape, and acknowledging by gestures full of astonishment the reality of the miracle; an invention, says a certain author, a professed admirer of antiquity, which might have been proposed as an example in the happiest age of Greece*.

We have another shining instance of the power of painting to introduce a great variety of objects on the scene at the same time, and of the advantage it has in this respect over poetry, in a drawing by the celebrated *la Fage*, which, like many other pieces of his, has not as yet been engraved, though wor-

thier, perhaps, of that honour than any other performance of the kind. This drawing represents the descent of *Æneas* into hell. The field is the dark caverns of *Pluto's* kingdom, through the middle of which creeps slowly the muddy and melancholy *Acheron*. Nearly in the center of the piece appears *Æneas* with the golden bough in his hand, and with an air of astonishment at what he sees. The *Sybil*, who accompanies him, is answering the questions which he asks her. The personage there is the ferryman of the pitchy lake, by which even the gods themselves are afraid to swear. Those, who crowding in to the banks of the river, numberless as the leaves shaken off the trees by autumnal blasts, express, with out-stretched hands, an impatience to be ferried to the opposite shore, are the unhappy manes, who, for want of burial, are unqualified for that happiness. *Charon*, accordingly, is crying out to them to keep off, and with his lifted up oar driving them from his boat, which has already taken in a number of those who had been honoured with the accustomed funeral rites. Behind *Æneas* and the *Sybil* we discover a confused group of wretched souls, lamenting bitterly their misfortune in being denied a passage; two of them wrapt up in their cloaths, and, in a fit of despair, sunk upon a rock. Upon the first lines of the piece stands a third groupe of uninhumed shades, *Leucæspes*, *Orontes*, and, in the midst of them, the good old *Pali-*

* The wit of man could not devise means more certain of the end proposed; such a chain of circumstances is equal to a narration; and I cannot but think, that the whole would have been an example of invention and conduct, even in the happiest age of antiquity.

nurus, formerly master and pilot of the hero's own vessel, who with joined hands most earnestly desires to be taken along with him into the boat, that, after death at least, he may find some repose, and his dead body no longer remain the sport of winds and waves. Thus, what we see scattered up and down in many verses by Virgil, is here, as it were, gathered into a focus, and centered by the ingenious pencil of the painter, so as to form a subject well worthy of being exposed, in more shapes than one, to the eyes of the public *.

When a painter takes a subject in hand, be it historical, be it fabulous, he should carefully peruse the books which treat of it, imprint well on his mind all the circumstances that attend it, the persons concerned in it, and the passions with which they must have been severally animated; not omitting the particulars of time

and place. His next business is to create it, as it were, anew, observing the rules already laid down for that purpose: from what is true chusing that which is most striking, and cloathing his subject with such accessory circumstances and actions, as may render it more conspicuous, pathetic, and noble, and best display the powers of the inventive faculty. But, in doing this, great discretion is requisite; for, let his imagination grow ever so warm, his hand is never to execute any thing that is not fully approved by his judgment. Nothing low or vulgar should appear in a lofty and noble argument; a fault, of which some of the greatest masters, even Lampieri and Poussin, have been now-and-then guilty.

The action must be one, the place one, the time one. I need not, I believe, say any thing of those painters, who, like the wri-

* *Ibant obscuri sola sub nocte per umbras,
Perque domos Ditis vacuas & inania regna, &c.
Hinc via Tartarei quæ fert Acherontis ad undas :
Turbidus hic cœno vasta que voragine gurgis
Æstuat, &c.
Æneas miratus enim motusque tumultu, &c.
Cocyti stagna alta vides, Stygiamque paludem,
Dii cujus jurare timent, & fallere numen.
Hæc omnis quam cernis inops inhumata que turba est :
Portitor ille Charon, hi quos vehit unda sepulti, &c.
Quam multa in sylvis autumnæ frigore primo
Lapsa cadunt folia, &c.
Stabant orantes primi transmittere cursum,
Tendebantque manus ripæ ulterioris amore ;
Navita sed tristis nunc hos, nunc accipit illos,
Ast alios longe summos arcet arena, &c.
Cernit ibi mœstos, & mortis honore carentes
Leucaspim & Lyciæ ductorem classis Orontem, &c.
Ecce gubernator se se Palinurus agebat, &c.
Nunc me fluctus habent, versantque in littore venti, &c.
Da dextram misero, & tecum me tolle per undas,
Sedibus ut saltem placidis in morte quiescam. VIRGIL.*

This drawing is in the possession of the author of this essay.

ters of the Chinese, and Spanish theatre, cram a variety of actions together, and so give us, at once, the whole life of a man. Such blunders, I flatter myself, are too gross to be feared at present. The politeness and learning of the age seem to demand considerations of a more refined nature, such as, that the episodes introduced in the drama of a picture, the better to fill and adorn it, should be not only beautiful in themselves, but indispensably requisite. The games, celebrated at the tomb of Anchises in Sicily, have a greater variety in them, and more sources of delight, than those that had been before celebrated at the tomb of Patroclus under the walls of Troy. The arms forged by Vulcan for Æneas, if not better tempered, are at least better engraved than those which the same god had forged several ages before for Achilles. Nevertheless, in the eyes of judges, both the games and the arms of Homer are more pleasing than those of Virgil, because the former are more necessary in the Iliad, than the latter, in the Æneid. Every part should agree with and have a

relation to the whole. Unity should reign even in variety, for in this beauty consists*. This is a fundamental maxim in all the arts, whose object it is to imitate the works of nature.

Pictures often borrow no small grace and beauty from the fictions of poetry. Albani has left us, in several of his works, sufficient proofs of the great share the belles lettres had in refining his taste. But Raphael, above all others, may in this branch too be considered as a guide and master. To give but one instance out of many; what a beautiful thought was it to represent the river himself, in a Passage-of-Jordan, supporting his waters with his own hands, in order to open a way to the army of the Israelites! Nor has he displayed less judgment in reviving, in his designs engraved by Agostino of Venice †, the little loves of Aetius playing with the arms of Alexander conquered by the beauty of Roxana ‡.

Among the ancients, Apelles and Parrhasius were those who distinguished themselves most in allegorical subjects; in which the in-

* This puts me in mind of what I once heard a man of letters and great learning say, *Absolute beauty is ONE, deformity MANIFOLD.* Della Casa nel Galatea.

† The original Italian says, by Marco Antonio. *We are indebted to the noble author for this correction, communicated by a private letter, as soon as he was informed of this translation being in the press.*

‡ Ετέρωθεν δὲ τῆς εἰκόνος ἄλλοι ἔρωτες παύουσιν ἐν τοῖς ὧλοις τῷ Ἀλεξάνδρῳ, δύο μὲν τὴν λόγχην αὐτῷ φέροντες, &c. Lucian.

Les folâtres plaisirs dans le sein de repos,
Les amours enfantins desarmoient ce héros :
L'un tenoit sa cuirasse encor de sang trempée.
L'autre avoit détaché sa redoutable épée,
Et rioit en tenant dans ses débiles mains

Ce fer, l'appui du trône, & l'effroi des humains. *Henriade, Chant. IX.*

ventive

ventive faculty shews itself to the greatest advantage; the first by his picture of Calumny *; the second by that of the Genius of the Athenians †. That ancient painter, called Galaton, gave likewise a fine proof of his genius in this branch, by representing a great number of poets greedily quenching their thirst in the waters gushing from the mouth of the sublime Homer. And to this allegory, according to Guigni, Pliny has an eye, when he calls that prince of poets, the fountain of wits ‡. But it is, after all, no way surprising, that we should often meet such fine flights of fancy in the ancient artists. They were not guided in their works by a blind

practice; they were men of polite education; conversant with the letters of the age in which they lived; and the companions, rather than the servants, of the great men who employed them §. The finest allegorical painter among the moderns was Rubens; and he was, accordingly, much celebrated for it. The best critics, however, find fault with his uniting, in the Luxemburg gallery, the queen-mother, in council, with two cardinals and Mercury ||. Nor is there less impropriety in his making tritons and nereids, in another piece of the same gallery, swim to the queen's vessel through the galleys of the knights of St. Stephen. Such freedoms are equally disgust-

* See Lucian upon calumny, and the XXth note of Carlo Dati, in the life of Apelles.

† Pinxit (Parrhasius) Demon Atheniensium argumento quoque ingenioso.

C. Plin. Nat. Hist. Lib. XXXV. Cap. x.

‡ Nonnulli quoque artifices non vulgaris solertiae famam captantes longius petita inventionis gloriam præcipue sibi amplexandam putabant. Ita Galaton pictor, teste Æliano var. Hist. XIII. 22. pinxit immensum gregem poetarum limpidas atque ubertim ex ore Homeri redundantes aquas avidissime haurientem. Hanc imaginem repræsentavit Ovidius III. Amorum, Eleg. 8.

Aspice Mœoniden, a quo ceu fonte perenni,

Vatum Pieriis ora rigantur aquis.

Manilius quoque circa initium libri secundi de Homero:

————— Cujusque ex ore profuso

Omnis posteritas latices in carmina duxit.

Plinius denique Lib. XVII. Nat. Hist. Cap. v. videtur eo respexisse, cum Homerum vocat fontem ingeniorum.

De Pictura Veterum, Lib. III. Cap. i.

§ The statuaries of Greece were not mere mechanics; men of education and literature, they were more the companions than servants of their employers: their taste was refined by the conversation of courts, and enlarged by the lectures of their poets: accordingly the spirit of their studies breathes through their works.

Webb, Dial. IV.

|| In the fine set of pictures, by Rubens, in the Luxemburg gallery, you will meet with various faults too, in relation to the allegories.

the queen mother, in council, with two cardinals and Mercury, &c.

Polym. Dial. XVIII.

ful with the prophecies of Sannazaro's Proteus, concerning the mystery of the incarnation; or the Indian kings of Camoens reasoning with the Portuguese on the adventures of Ulysses.

The best modern performances in picturesque allegory are, certainly, those of Poussin, who availed himself, with great discretion and judgment, of the vast treasures with which, by a close study of the ancients, he had enriched his memory. On the other hand, le Brun, his countryman, has been very unhappy this way. Ambitious to have every thing his own, instead of allegories, he has filled the gallery of Versailles with enigmas and riddles, of which none but himself was qualified to be the *Œdipus*. Allegory must be ingenious, it is true; but then it must be equally perspicuous; for which reason, a painter should avoid all vague and indeterminate allusions, and likewise those to history and heathen mythology which are too abstruse to be understood by the generality of spectators. The best way, in my opinion, to symbolize moral and abstract things, is to represent particular events; as Caracci did, by advice of Monsignore Agucchi, in the Farnesian palace †. For example, what can better express a

hero's love towards his country than the virtuous Decius consecrating himself boldly to the infernal gods in order to secure victory to his countrymen over their enemies? What finer emblems can we desire of emulation, and an insatiable thirst for glory, than Julius Cæsar weeping before the statue of Alexander in the temple of Hercules at Gades; of the inconsistency of fortune, than Marius sitting on the ruins of Carthage, and receiving, instead of the acclamations of an army joyfully saluting him emperor, orders from a licitor of Sextilius to quit Africa; of indiscretion than Candaules, who, by shewing the naked beauties of his wife to his friend Giges, kindled a passion that soon made him repent his folly? Such representations as these require no comment; they carry their explanation along with them. Besides, supposing, and it is the worst we can suppose, that the painter's aim in them should happen not to be understood, his piece would still give delight. It is thus that the fables of Ariosto prove so entertaining, even to those who understand nothing of the moral couched under them; and likewise the *Æneis*, though all do not comprehend the allusions and double intent of the poet.

† See Bellori's Life of Caracci.

We were favoured with the following piece too late to be inserted in its proper place.

Character of the late Earl of Hardwicke.

IT has been already observed, that more persons of eminence have paid the debt to nature in the course of this year than in any of the preceding. The justice due to the extraordinary talents and long services of the most distinguished of that number, calls upon us to enlarge a little longer than usual in our account of the late Earl of Hardwicke. He was born at Dover in Kent, December the first, 1690; and after a well-grounded education, under one of the best and most ingenious scholars of his time, Mr. Samuel Morland, of Bethnal Green (a great personal friend of Dr. Samuel Clarke) in classical and general learning, which he retained, and cultivated amidst his most laborious and highest employments, he applied himself to the study of the law in the Middle Temple; and being called to the bar within a few months after the accession of the present royal family to the throne, soon became very eminent for his industry and parts, frequently arguing cases of difficulty and consequence, and was engaged in an extensive course of practice.

In the year 1718, he was brought into parliament as member for Lewes in Suffex, as also in the two successive parliaments for Seaford, by the interest of his grace the Duke of Newcastle, with whom he maintained an inviolable

friendship and unreserved confidence during the rest of his life.

Before the age of thirty, on the 23d of March 1719-20, when he was the youngest council on the western circuit, he was promoted for his extraordinary rising merit to the office of solicitor general, by the recommendation of the lord chancellor Parker. This obligation he never forgot, returning it by all possible marks of personal regard and affection; and defended that noble lord with great honour and spirit, in the house of commons, against the rough attacks of serjeant Pengelly, in 1725, as to the manner of his lordship's answering the articles of impeachment, and his plea of the act of grace.

The trial of Mr. Laver at the King's Bench for high treason, in November 1722, gave the solicitor an opportunity of shewing how completely qualified he was for that office; his reply, which lasted above two hours in the delivery, and in which he summed up late at night the evidence against the prisoner, and very ably confuted all the topics of defence, being justly admired as one of the best performances of that kind extant.

About the same time he gained much reputation in parliament, by his opening of the bill against Kelly, who had been principally concerned in bishop Atterbury's plot, as his secretary.

In February 1723-4, he was appointed attorney-general, Sir Clement Wearg succeeding him in the office of solicitor. with whom he lived in the most intimate union. In the execution of this important office, he was remarkable for his candour and lenity, as well as skill and other great qualities. As an advocate for the crown, he spoke with the veracity of a witness and a judge: and though his zeal for justice and the due course of law was strong, yet his tenderness to the subject, in the court of exchequer, was so distinguished, that it happened once, when he touched upon his own conduct in that point, in some of the parliamentary debates upon the excise, in 1733, the whole house of commons assented to it with an universal applause. He was so unmoved by fear or favour, in what he thought right and legal, that he often debated and voted against the court, in matters relating to the South Sea, whilst he was solicitor general; and it is well remembered, that some years afterwards, he brought a bill into parliament, and carried it through the house of commons, as attorney general, relating to the management of the Derwentwater estate, which was forfeited in the rebellion of 1715, contrary to the sense of some of the ministers, and of other eminent lawyers, merely because he thought the ordinary course of law not adequate to redress or prevent frauds and abuses in that case, without the interposition of parliament. Upon this occasion, old Mr. Shippen said, that he should ever honour him for his justice.

Upon the resignation of the great seal by Peter Lord King, in October 1733, Sir Philip Yorke waved his own just pretensions to it, in order to accommodate the public service, and accepted the office of lord chief justice of the King's Bench, being soon after raised to the dignity of a Baron of this kingdom, with the title of lord Hardwicke, baron of Hardwicke in the county of Gloucester, and called to the cabinet council.

Whilst his lordship filled that seat, he delivered from it a considerable number of solemn arguments upon important points. As he was master of much learning early acquired, so he shewed a singular sagacity and felicity of genius in explaining, illustrating, and enforcing it. Such instructive lessons of jurisprudence could not but be eminently useful to all who attended that court, either as students or council.

In the midst of the general approbation with which he discharged his office there, he was called to that of lord high chancellor on the decease of his illustrious predecessor lord Talbot, on the 17th of February 1736-7, having the great seal delivered to him on the 21st of that month.

The integrity and abilities with which his lordship presided in the court of chancery during the space of almost twenty years, a period longer than that of any of his predecessors, except lord chancellor Egerton, appears from this remarkable circumstance, that only three of his decrees were appealed from, and even those were afterwards affirmed by the house of lords.

After

After he had executed that high office about seventeen years, in times and circumstances of accumulated difficulty and danger, from a long, expensive, and upon the whole, unsuccessful war, violent contests of parties and factions at home, and a formidable rebellion, countenanced by a most powerful enemy, and had twice been called to the exercise of the office of lord high steward on the trials of peers concerned in the rebellion, he was, in April 1754, advanced by his late majesty, as a mark of his royal approbation of his services, to the rank of an earl of Great Britain, with the titles of viscount Royston and earl of Hardwicke.

This favour was conferred unasked, by a sovereign rather reserved in the bestowing of honors, but who had the truest sense of lord Hardwicke's zeal, knowledge, and integrity, who treated him through the course of a long and glorious reign with particular esteem and confidence, and always spoke of him in a manner which shewed, that he set as high a value on the man, as on the minister. This testimony from a prince remarkable for truth and sincerity, does equal honour to the sovereign and to the subject.

His resignation of the great seal in November 1756, gave an universal concern to the nation, however divided at that time in other respects. But he still continued to serve the public in a more private station, though he had it in his choice, both in the last and present reign, whether he would again fill other public offices of high dignity.

His attendance at council,

whenever his presence was necessary; at more private meetings, whenever his opinion was desired; at the house of lords, upon every occasion, where the course of public business required it; were the same as when he filled one of the highest offices in the kingdom. He had a pleasure in giving the full exertion of his abilities to the state, without expecting or receiving any emoluments of any kind whatever; and he seemed only to have quitted the laborious details of the chancery, that he might be at more leisure to attend to such parts of the public service as were of more general use to the community.

His reverence for the laws and constitution of his country was equal to his extensive learning in them. This rendered him as tender of the just prerogatives invested in the crown for the benefit of the whole, as watchful to prevent the least incroachment upon the liberty of the subject.

The part which he acted in planning, introducing, and supporting the *Bill for abolishing the heretable jurisdictions in Scotland*, and the share which he took, beyond what his department required of him, in framing and promoting the other bills relating to that country, arose from his zeal to the protestant succession, his concern for the general happiness and improvement of the kingdom, and for the preservation of this equal and limited monarchy; which were the governing principles of his public conduct through life. And these, and other bills which might be mentioned, were strong proofs of his talents as a legislator.

In the character of a statesman, his knowledge of mankind, his acquaintance with history and treaties both ancient and modern, added to his long experience, penetration, and superior understanding, enabled him to decide with force and exactness upon all the questions in which he was consulted by his colleagues in other branches of the administration. And he had a peculiar talent of analysing such questions, by stating the arguments on both sides in a comprehensive and pointed view.

In judicature, his firmness and dignity were evidently derived from his consummate knowledge and talents; and the mildness and humanity with which he tempered it, from the best heart. He was wonderfully happy in his manner of debating causes upon the bench, which he did copiously and elaborately. His apprehension was so quick and steady, that it was unnecessary to repeat facts or reasonings, which had once been stated, to him a second time. His attention to the arguments from the bar was so close, and so undisturbed by impatience, or any passion or affection of his mind, that he condescended to learn from the meanest, whilst he every day instructed and surprized the ablest. He gave the utmost scope to the objections which pressed strongest against his opinion, and often improved them. But his judgment was so correct and excellent, that even his unpremeditated opinions were generally acknowledged to be profound, and to turn upon the best points which the cause afforded; would bear examination when reduced into written reports; and

give the highest satisfaction to the parties for their justice, and to the lawyers for the skill and discernment with which he formed them; *Eiam quos contra statuit æquos & placatos dimisit.*

His extraordinary dispatch of the business of the court of chancery, increased as it was in his time, beyond what had been known in any former, on account of his established reputation there, and the extension of the commerce and riches of the nation, was an advantage to the suitor, inferior only to that arising from the acknowledged equity, perspicuity, and precision of his decrees.

The manner in which he presided in the house of lords; added order and dignity to that assembly, and expedition to the business transacted there; his acquaintance with the rules and precedents of it, preserving the strictest decorum, and his masterly abilities in preparing and conducting matters of parliamentary proceeding, having gained him more weight there than perhaps ever belonged to any one of his predecessors.

His talents as a speaker in the senate, as well as on the bench, have left too strong an impression to need being dilated upon to those who had often heard him. To their memories it will be sufficient to recal, that whenever lord Hardwicke delivered his sentiments in public, he spoke with a natural and manly eloquence, unsullied by false ornaments, declamatory flourishes, or personal invectives. He had a method and arrangement in his topics, which gradually interested, enlightened, and convinced the hearer. When he quoted precedents of any kind, either in law,

history,

history, or the forms of parliament, he applied them with the greatest skill, and at the same time with the greatest fairness. And whenever he argued, his reasons were supported and strengthened by the most apposite cases and examples, which the subject would allow. In questions of state and policy, he drew his principles from the ablest authorities in legislation and the art of government; and in questions of jurisprudence, from the purest sources of the laws and constitution of his own country, and, when the occasion called for it, of others. His manner was graceful and affecting; modest, yet commanding; his voice peculiarly clear and harmonious, and even loud and strong for the greater part of his time. With these talents of public speaking, the integrity of his character gave a lustre to his eloquence, which those who opposed him felt in the debate, and which operated most powerfully on the minds of those who heard him with a view to information and conviction. And it were to be wished, for the sake of posterity, that his speeches on a variety of important points of law, equity, and policy were preserved in a more lasting register, than that of the memory of his contemporaries.

Convinced of the great principles of religion, and steady in the practice of the duties of it, he maintained a reputation of virtue, which added dignity to the stations which he filled, and authority to the laws which he administered.

His attachment to the national church was accompanied with a full conviction that a tender regard

to the rights of conscience, and a temper of lenity and moderation, are not only right in themselves, but most conducive in their consequences to the honour and interest of the church. The strongest recommendation to him of the clergy to the ecclesiastical preferments in his disposal, was, their fitness for the discharge of the duties of their profession. And that respectable body owes a particular obligation to his lordship, and his predecessor lord Talbot, for the opposition which they gave in the house of lords to the *act for the more easy recovery of tythes, church-rates, and other ecclesiastical dues from the people called Quakers*, which might have proved of dangerous consequence to the rights and property of the clergy, though it had passed the other house, and was known to be powerfully supported.

Many facts and anecdotes which do him honour may be recollected and set down, when resentments, partialities, and contests are forgot.

The amiableness of his manners and his engaging address rendered him as much beloved by those who had access to him, as he was revered and admired for his greater talents, by the whole nation. And as few, in any age or country, equalled him in the latter respects, so none exceeded him in the former.

His constitution in the earlier part of his life did not seem to promise so much health and vigour, as he afterwards enjoyed for a longer period than usually falls to the share of men of more robust habit of body, and less oppressed by an unremitting application to affairs of the most difficult and complicated nature. But his
care

care to guard against any excesses; secured to him an almost uninterrupted tenor of health: and his habitual mastery of his passions gave him a firmness and tranquillity of mind unabated by the fatigues and anxieties of business; from the daily circle of which he rose to the enjoyment of the conversation of his family and friends, with the spirits of a person entirely vacant and disengaged.

Till the latter end of his seventy-third year, he preserved the appearance and vivacity of youth in his countenance, in which the characters of dignity and amiableness were remarkably united. And he supported the disorder which proved fatal to him, of many months continuance, and of the most depressing kind, with an uncommon patience, resignation, and even cheerfulness, enjoying the strength and quickness of his understanding to the close of life. He died in the seventy-fourth year of his age, at his house in Grosvenor-square, on Tuesday in the afternoon, March 6th 1764, at a time when the situation of public af-

fairs rendered his death a loss as unseasonable, as it would at any time have been important. And his name will be remembered by posterity with the same reverence which attends the most celebrated civil characters in the annals of this country.

That so shining and exemplary a character should have been attacked by calumny, is not to be wondered at; that it should have escaped so long, can only be attributed to its acknowledged worth; men of all parties have concurred in detesting the mean and malicious attempts which have been lately made to asperse his good name to posterity.

His body lies interred at Wimple in Cambridgeshire, by that of his lady, Margaret, daughter of Charles Cocks, esq; of Worcestershire, and niece of lord chancellor Sommers. The union between them had been most affectionate and constant; and her private virtues and endowments of mind will render her memory for ever dear and respected, by all who had the happiness of knowing her.

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THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

CHICAGO, ILL. 60637
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20250

